

# The Nation.

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## The Week.

THE Presidential canvass promises to be one of extraordinary bitterness, and of all but unprecedented "personality." Indeed, we doubt whether so fair a prospect has ever in the history of the press opened itself before the newspaper ruffians. A column or two of vituperation, spiced with innuendoes, "charges," and bad names will probably bring them more in dollars and cents, and procure them more caresses at the hands of heroes and statesmen during the next six months than ever before. There is nothing more comical about these ruffians than the pretence they occasionally make that they do not like their business, and the wishes they ejaculate that somebody had not begun "the personalities" and that they were not necessary—the fact being that abuse is the sole intellectual effort of which they are capable, and that there is nothing they enjoy so much. Mr. Whitelaw Reid, of the *Tribune*, has propounded recently, in a lecture on "Journalism," the theory that the New York press is better now than it was last year or the year before, and goes on improving. We wish we could agree with him. We shall probably see nothing in the coming canvass so foolishly brutal as Brick Pomeroy's *Democrat* was in 1868; but we are pretty sure we shall see far worse behavior on the part of papers making what the *Democrat* never made, pretensions to respectability. One curious enquiry the ruffians occasionally set on foot with an air of interest is, "who began the personalities?" The answer to this is, that the first ruffian began them, and a catena of ruffians has been keeping them up "down the ages" ever since. The "personalities" of our time, however, differ from those of most preceding ages in that, instead of being preliminaries to physical encounters on the part of excited and earnest combatants, they are supplied to order by mercenaries who care little or nothing about the quarrel, or are only interested in it as they are interested in the price of mutton, and who, if you showed them their compositions in a private room among respectable men, would look quite sheepish and ashamed, and show no disposition in the world to stand by their epithets.

The Cincinnati movement has gathered headway with such great rapidity that the notion of making it an advisory or protesting body, a mass-meeting subsidiary to the convention at Philadelphia, has now wholly disappeared, and for a week past its probable candidates have been the subject of most of the talk. One of its probable candidates has also been the subject of a great deal of silence—in certain quarters. It is a rather significant fact that the Administration Organ in this city has never heard that there is such a person in the field as Mr. Charles Francis Adams, and is quite dumb as to the dangers in which that gentleman's election to the Presidency would involve the country. It knows the disasters which would fall upon Mr. D. A. Wells if Mr. Greeley is nominated; it knows whether it was in Memphis or Arkansas that Mr. Greeley "shook hands with Jefferson Davis"; it knows in what year it was that the *Tribune* "called Mr. Fessenden a traitor," and who it was that called Mr. Schurz "a Dutch viper," and when it was that "Schurz struck for higher wages." But these weighty and intrinsically important matters have occupied so much of its valuable time that to the political possibility most threatening to its faction it has been blind with the blindness of the ostrich. So far as we can judge from the newspapers, Democratic, Republican, and Independent, Mr. Adams is a very popular candidate before the people. Whether his popularity with the managers of the new movement is equal to the popular belief in his availability and fitness for the office is a question which time

must answer. The West will be strong in the convention; and so far as anything like "organization" has shown itself, Governor Brown's friends and Senator Trumbull's have made more show of it than any other Republicans. We see that a formidable ticket bearing the names of Mr. Adams and Governor Cox is going the rounds of the papers. If neither the Democracy nor the rabble rout of the Republicans capture the Convention, and these gentlemen are indeed its nominees, whoever beats them has his work cut out for him.

The friends of the Administration held their meeting on Wednesday of last week, in reply to the demonstration of the Liberal Republicans on the previous Friday. Great efforts were made, to herald it abroad, and they were successful in producing a very large attendance, the room being crowded in every part, in addition to a small and rather unsuccessful gathering around a stand outside. The audience was apparently of a composite character. It was decidedly enthusiastic, but enthusiastic for very different things. The catholicity of its admiration, may be inferred from the fact that James Gordon Bennett, George Jones, Horace Greeley, and Daniel E. Sickles were all loudly cheered. The proceedings, however, hardly fulfilled, in a moral point of view, the promise of the highly respectable call. The principal speaker was General Sickles, whose appointment to the Spanish mission called down, on account of the badness of his character, the severest censures of the Administration by so good a friend of the President as *Harper's Weekly*. The General's reappearance as an "endorser" of Grant, and, above all, as a "reviewer" of the career of Carl Schurz, was, under the circumstances, perhaps one of the most curious incidents of the crisis. We believe it was part of the original programme that Senator Harlan should appear as an "endorser" too, and he was very eager to do so; but it was felt at Washington that this would be more than even the New York public could stand, so he was judiciously held back. It must be admitted, however, that Sickles is an almost unrivalled stump speaker. He upholds worthily the traditions of the early days of the art, before the newspapers had taken the life out of it. His speech, as he delivered it, was much better than the essay he had printed in the *Times*. It is worthy of note that the meeting was got up by Mr. Henry Clews, of the firm of Clews & Habicht, to which the foreign banking business of the Government was given when it was taken away from the Barings last year, and that twenty of his clerks appeared at the head of the list of fifty-nine secretaries

The other two speakers were Senators Wilson and Morton. As Mr. Morton has within the last seven years both opposed negro suffrage and supported it, proposed the payment of the national debt in greenbacks and afterwards demanded its payment in coin and denounced the greenback theory, and now maintains that "we have the best civil service in the world" and is the enemy of all reform in it, it is hardly worth while to discuss his efforts as an "endorser." The speech of the evening was that of Senator Wilson, who was the only one of the three who could with a good grace "review" anybody, or whose "endorsement" was worth anything, or, indeed, could be offered to anybody without offence. He urged with great force the sentimental claims of the Republican party upon popular support, made a good deal out of the Ring thefts, and then entered on a detailed defence of the Administration which was not very fortunate. He took Senator Trumbull severely to task for charging the President with employing military officers at the White House in the discharge of civil functions, and said that the President, in having Generals Porter and Babcock detailed for his service, was only doing what several of his predecessors had done, and what was perfectly legal. On both these points Mr. Wilson appears to have been in error, and the errors of a man who is engaged in cor-

recting another are doubly heinous. He cited the case of General Knox, who was sent to Congress with Washington's messages, but Knox was at the time Secretary of War. He also cited the case of Major Donelson, who was Jackson's private secretary, but he had left the army seven years before Jackson appointed him. He also cited the case of Colonel John Hay, "an army officer," who served as Lincoln's private secretary, but it appears that Colonel Hay was not in the army when he received the appointment, though he was when he held it the second time during the last year of the war.

But in saying that the presence of Generals Porter and Babcock at the White House is legal, Mr. Wilson committed a worse kind of mistake than a mistake in history. There was an act passed in 1870, of which Mr. Wilson, as Chairman of the Senate Committee on Military Affairs, should not be ignorant, making it illegal for any military officer to hold any civil office, "or to exercise the functions of any civil office," which of itself, even if other things were the same, makes the precedents cited by Mr. Wilson of no use to General Grant. Let us say frankly that we do not believe that the presence of officers at the White House is proof of a design on the part of General Grant to overthrow the republic and establish a military despotism. Our firm belief is that he entertains no designs hostile to the present form of government, and that he may lawfully smile at all charges of wishing to found an imperial dynasty. He keeps Porter and Babcock about him for the very simple reason that they are old friends and comrades who are personally agreeable to him; but his keeping them about him in defiance of the act above-mentioned, is one more illustration of that easy, good-natured disregard of the law which nearly every member of the Administration is displaying in a greater or less degree, and which, trifling as it seems, is dangerous, and ought to be repressed. It does not threaten us with Caesarism, but it does threaten us with that moral and political confusion and demoralization which has often made a Caesar welcome.

The only movement thus far made in Philadelphia towards being represented at Cincinnati, though embracing some respectable names, has not the proportion needed to inspire apprehension on the part of the Administration. It is certainly far from being identical with the Citizens' Reform Association, though the report is confirmed that Col. McClure will go to Cincinnati and "burn his bridges" behind him. He has just written a letter to some one who does a small business in small politics, and who has been calling upon him to "redeem his pledge" made last winter. This critic is admonished that the Colonel's pledge was that he would sustain the Republican organization inside and outside the State Senate, except when it opposed municipal or general reform. He has since learned from his own experience that the President is "the foe of every principle of reform."

The case of *Watson agt. Jenner*, which has just been decided in the Supreme Court, for the first time authoritatively settles the relation of the civil to the ecclesiastical tribunals of this country, and is not without its bearing on the Cheney case, in Chicago, two years ago. A Presbyterian church in Louisville (Kentucky) split during the war on the question of slavery and emancipation, the majority adhering to the Government and the proclamation, holding the church, and receiving the approval of the ecclesiastical General Assembly. On a suit brought by the malcontents, the State court set aside the decision of the General Assembly, and put the revolting officers and members in possession. Some of the loyal members residing in Indiana then carried the case into the Federal courts, and have now got judgment in their favor. The Supreme Court decides that where property is given or left in trust for the promotion of any particular doctrine or form of worship, and there is a dispute over it between members of the church or congregation, the Court will take upon itself to decide which of the two rival par-

ties professes the faith for the support of which the money was left; or, in other words, will assume the functions discharged by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England in like cases. But when there is no special trust created by deed or will, and a like dispute arises, the Court will treat the decision of the highest ecclesiastical tribunal of the denomination to which the congregation belongs as final and binding, and will enforce it. In this case, the decision of the General Assembly is adopted by the Court. This would, we apprehend, dispose of Mr. Cheney's attempt to get the civil courts to protect him against his bishop.

The Republican majority of the committee which has been investigating the case of Miller, the Superintendent of Insurance, have made a report, finding him guilty of receiving and appropriating to his own use a fee of one per cent. on the transfer of the securities deposited by the companies; of receiving, and sometimes charging, more for making examinations of the affairs of companies than the committee considers legitimate, without authority of law; of allowing clerks and commissioners in his department to receive illegal and excessive fees for the same work; of so managing the department as to lead companies to believe that it would be for their interest to employ brokers enjoying his favor. They also find that "the testimony tends to show" that he received, through H. C. Southwick, Jr., a commission of 20 per cent. on the printing of the Insurance Report; that \$20,000 were raised by seven companies last winter to procure the passage of an act conferring extraordinary powers on him; and that he was cognizant of the use made of the money. The committee accordingly recommend his removal; in which recommendation we think the public will concur, in spite of the loose wording of the findings, because an inspector of monetary institutions has not only to be pure, but above suspicion.

What deprives the result of all these investigations into the conduct of officials in this State of much of its value is, however, the fact that each officer investigated is either a Fentonite, a Conklingite, or a Democrat, and each investigation is hailed as a means by which the Fentonite, Conklingite, or Democratic cause may be glorified or brought to shame. For instance, Cushman, who stole the postage stamps, and Terwilliger, who pocketed 20 per cent. on the State printing, were both Conklingites of the Custom-house variety, and accordingly their case was passed over lightly or treated apologetically by the Organ of the Administration. In like manner, Senator Wood, who was found out in having borrowed money from Tweed last year which it was acknowledged he never expected to pay, and who, if he had been a Fentonite, would have been crucified, was treated tenderly, and the committee refused to recommend his expulsion, which he certainly deserved if ever man did. Now, on the other hand, Miller, being a Democrat with Fentonite "affiliations," as the politicians say, is pursued with the greatest ferocity—the Conklingite press throwing aside all regard for decency and common prudence in its anxiety to run him down; but the *Tribune* treats him somewhat tenderly. We ought to add that as between the *Times* and *Tribune*, in the matter of "exposures," the *Tribune* is still two rascals ahead.

"Our Case" has been in a bad way all through the week, and it grows worse. The press has been approaching unanimity in recommending the abandonment of the now celebrated claim for the expenses of the war after Gettysburg. Even the *Springfield Republican*, which was at first hostile to the very mention of any change, now advises this course, and the Organ in this city admits in a vague way that it may be a good thing to do. Mr. Banks, too, the Chairman of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, who is very cautious about seeming to yield anything to a foreign despot, is said to have concluded that the indirect claims are a little too weak for action, and has had an interview with Secretary Fish on

the subject; and, though last not least, President Woolsey, of New Haven, writes to the *Independent* declaring that he thinks the British Commissioners and the country at large here honestly believed them to have been abandoned under the Treaty, and he conjures our Government, in the interest of peace and good-will, to give them up. The Administration is, however, said to be, as we feared it would be, firm in its refusal to recede. Mr. Fish is reported to have said to Mr. Banks, what it is very natural he should say, that a great government like the United States "could not solemnly put forth an argument one day and take it back the next." This is very true, and furnishes the very reason why a great government should never, in a great controversy, put forth any argument which its ablest men have not maturely considered, and why it should never allow the pleadings of a whole people at the bar of civilized opinion to be drafted by one inexperienced and comparatively unknown officer. No man in the United States, if he had been asked last fall whether he would agree to stand by anything Mr. Bancroft Davis chose to say in a controversy with Great Britain or any other foreign power, would have consented. Nevertheless, the Irish witness who, having sworn the horse was sixteen feet high, and having been told that he must mean sixteen hands, declared that "whatever he said he'd stick to," is a poor model for a diplomatist engaged in a great controversy.

The British and American Counter-Cases have both been submitted to the Geneva Commission, and the latter has been transmitted to Congress by the President. The British Counter-Case takes no notice of the indirect claims, and somewhat scornfully declines to reply to the insinuations of bad faith and insincerity which Mr. Davis, inadvisedly and against all usage in an "amicable settlement" of an international difficulty, thought proper to introduce into the American Case. This also was an offence against the principle of arbitration, for governments will never agree to go before Boards as criminals, and submit to have their leading men tried for lying, and cheating, and using false pretences. The British Case having been composed in ignorance of the contents of the American Case, the Counter-Case is in the main an answer to the main points of law and fact presented by the American Case.

The American Counter-Case, which has just been laid before Congress, is a great improvement in temper and rhetoric on the Case. It deals seriatim with what it terms "the errors of the British Case": (1) errors of sense; (2) errors as to the rights and duties of neutrals; (3) historical errors. As to the "errors of sense," it denies the correctness of the British view of the status of the insurgents, alleging that the recognition of their belligerency did not clothe them with "undefined political attributes," but left them simply a body of rebels who might be recognized as clothed with belligerent rights at the discretion of neutral powers. It denies also the propriety of confining the term "Alabama Claims" to claims growing out of the acts of the *Florida*, *Alabama*, *Georgia*, and *Shenandoah* only, and includes under this head all claims raised by the acts of all Confederate cruisers; and, finally, it denies the propriety of applying the term "American citizens" to the persons engaged in the war on American commerce in the service of the Confederacy. As regards "the rights and duties of neutrals," the Counter-Case denies that the fact that a belligerent cruiser, after escaping from a neutral port, has been commissioned or armed outside the neutral jurisdiction, exempts the neutral from responsibility for the escape; or that Great Britain was bound by any neutral obligation to admit Confederate cruisers which had been thus armed and commissioned to her ports afterwards; or that the term "due diligence" is to be interpreted by the reference to "the care or diligence any particular government uses in its domestic concerns," as this would be a fluctuating and uncertain standard. It half apologizes for the offensive charges of the Case by alleging that the American representatives understood that the British Government would not, under this rule,

acknowledge anything to be negligence which could not be shown to be culpable negligence; that this was the view taken by an "eminent and learned publicist" (Mr. Vernon Harcourt, doubtless), under whose direction they understood the Case was to be prepared; and that therefore they felt compelled to submit evidence of what they considered unfriendly feeling towards the United States on the part of individual members of the British Government. The Counter-Case, therefore, denies that municipal laws or usages furnish the measure of neutral obligation.

As regards "historical errors," the Counter-Case denies that the war terminated in 1865, "with the complete reconquest of the eleven Confederate States"; also that any insurgent vessels escaped from insurgent ports were preying on American commerce when the *Alabama* and *Florida* escaped from Liverpool; calls attention to the fact that all maritime powers which recognized the Confederates as belligerents did so only after Great Britain had set the example; and denies that the acts complained of by the United States belong to a class "not commonly made objects of prohibitory legislation" except by Great Britain and the United States. The remainder of the Counter-Case is taken up with a recriminatory discussion of the manner in which the United States have in times past fulfilled their neutral obligations and of the comparative merits of the British and American Neutrality Laws, and cannot be summarized.

The last news from England seems to indicate the approach of a ministerial crisis, brought about, as our correspondent half predicted a fortnight ago that it would be, by Mr. Fawcett's bill providing for the full and complete opening of Trinity College, Dublin, to persons of all creeds. It is the aim of Mr. Fawcett and the Radicals to commit the Government permanently to the policy of secular education, and to put an end to all schemes for the endowment of sectarian colleges. Mr. Gladstone is, however, believed to be strongly inclined to give way on this point to the Catholics, and set up a Catholic university, which not only excites the suspicion and hostility of the political Radicals, but of the Dissenters, who under no circumstances will consent to vote money for the support of "Popery." The Fawcett bill is undoubtedly a blow at one of the outposts of the English Church Establishment, and that it must be so regarded in the Conservative ranks there is hardly a doubt. Should Gladstone now go out on this question and the Conservatives come in, it would be another of those singular upturnings in English politics of which the appearance in power of Disraeli as a reformer was the beginning.

The Commission of the French Assembly has made its report on the reorganization of the army, and offers a plan which will put an enormous force under arms. It recommends the abolition of bounties and substitution, and liability to military service on the part of the whole male population between the ages of twenty and forty, except the sons of widows or blind parents, or the eldest of orphans, or men who are the sole support of families. Even one-eyed men, lame men, and hunchbacks must be swept into the service, as long as there is any duty of any kind for which they are qualified. Five years are to be passed in "the active army," and five in the reserve; five in "the territorial army," corresponding to the German *Landwehr*, and five in the reserve or *landsturm*. Of the 302,000 men who attain the age of twenty every year in France, it is calculated 65,000 will be exempted for physical infirmities; 76,300 will be exempted for various other reasons, leaving about 157,500 disposable, of whom 8,000 go to the navy. The army will thus receive about 150,000 in all each year, and it is calculated that if once the system were fairly at work, and the reserves became available, France could put 1,185,000 men in the field. It is curious to see that the commission talks of the army as a possible school of morality, though it still proposes to prohibit marriage during the whole period of a young man's service in the active force—that is, between the ages of twenty and twenty-five.

## THE WORK BEFORE THE CINCINNATI CONVENTION.

THE Cincinnati movement has made considerable progress during the last fortnight both in the number and character of the adhesions to it, and it has received no small stimulus from the continued and apparently increasing folly of the friends of the Administration. The bolters could hardly have desired anything more auspicious at this juncture than the course of the majority in the House with regard to the Civil-Service Commission, and the continued non-appearance of the report of the New Orleans Investigating Committee, combined with the continued retention of Casey in office. If to these things we add the performances of the Cameronians in Pennsylvania, which have proved even more than Mr. Forney can stand, we have reason enough for the recent rapid multiplication of "calls" to Cincinnati all over the country. It will hardly do, however, for the supporters of the new movement to place too much reliance on the faults of their opponents. There is a large amount—how large one can hardly judge from public manifestations—of discontent with the existing régime in the Republican ranks. Those who dislike the men who surround the President and "run the machine" for him are probably five times as numerous as they seem, and their number increases every day. But it does not follow that because they are discontented they are ready for *any* change. A very large proportion of them are unwilling to make any open declaration of hostility to the Administration, for the simple reason that they see no chance at present of putting anything better in its place. "Things," they say, "are by no means satisfactory, but they might be worse, and we know of nothing at present within our reach which would improve them. Grant *may* be all you say, and his friends *are* all you say, but we know pretty nearly the exact extent and nature of their badness; and, until we are offered a reasonable probability of something better, we shall put up with them."

Now, we make bold to say that it is in this feeling that the new movement finds its greatest obstacle. It is far easier to deal with declared enemies who dispute your passage than with men who are very willing to travel in the same road and in the same direction with you, but refuse to go at your pace or in your company. It derives additional strength from the fact to which we alluded last week, that it is not possible, in our day and under existing circumstances, to start a reform movement into which men who are notoriously anything but reformers shall not force themselves. The Cincinnati Convention will undoubtedly have a large attendance of men whose opposition to the Administration rests on anything but creditable grounds, and of men whose advent to power and whose influence in the Government the most determined opponents of Grant would witness with unmixed apprehension. If the choice of the country is to be between the Toms, Dicks, and Harrys, the country will prefer the Toms with whose tricks it is already familiar, to either the Dicks or the Harrys whose tricks would probably be new and certainly would be no better. If the Convention, therefore, should allow itself to suppose that the cry of "anybody but Grant," or "anybody but Murphy, or Cameron, or Morton," has any magic in it, we venture to predict it would find itself egregiously mistaken. In order to clothe our assertion with circumstance, we will say that if, for instance, anybody supposes the deep disgust which has been caused in the Republican ranks in this State by the performances of the Conklingites has prepared people to look for relief and purification to the Fentonites, he labors under a great delusion. Anybody, therefore, who goes out to Cincinnati for no better reason than that he has been cheated by his brother politicians of his fair share of "the plums," might as well stay at home as far as the good of the cause is concerned, and the Convention will do well to keep a strict watch on him after he arrives.

For somewhat similar reasons, it is safe to say that the Convention can gain nothing by too great sacrifices to "harmony." Harmony is a very good thing, as far as it goes, but it is by no means the principal thing; indeed, it is only a means to an end. The first thing for a new party or a reform party to provide itself with is a

body of doctrine; a party without this is a simple absurdity. It will not do to pass over revenue reform, or civil-service reform, or the condition of the South, or the encroachments of the central Government, or any other great question of the day, in order simply to organize an opposition to Grant. We are not going to engage in any wretched game for "a new deal." Amusement of that kind can be found inside the Republican ranks. Nor is it worth while to collect a great body of men at Cincinnati for the mere purpose of drawing up a string of unmeaning or vague resolutions. If we want to declare ourselves in favor of the payment of the pensions of the soldiers and sailors; in favor of a tariff for revenue which shall at the same time protect native industry from the pauper labor of Europe; in favor of a reform of the civil service which shall never go beyond preparation for reform; in favor of high wages and large profits, of scarcity and abundance, light and darkness, Ahriman and Ormuzd, we can do it at home. There are gentlemen in the Custom-house who can any day draw up a platform of this kind which might defy competition. If the Cincinnati Convention is to speak at all on the questions of the day, it must speak in English and with no faltering voice. It must ask, not for "civil-service reform" in the abstract, but for "a particular measure," of which it must specify the main features; for a tariff for revenue—that is, for a tariff levied solely on such articles and at such rates as experience has shown or shall show to be productive of the largest revenue. This is a question of naked fact, which accountants can any day settle; a tariff which shall raise revenue, and at the same time protect native industry, is a thing on which no general agreement can ever be reached. No general consensus as to what constitutes "protection for native industry" ever has been reached, or probably ever will be reached, in this stage of existence. For every man you protect, there is always another somewhere accusing you of ruining him. The one way out of the difficulty is to stop the attempt, with such regard for vested interests as justice prescribes.

The Convention must also say what it thinks about the condition of the South, which at present threatens half the Union with a return to barbarism. On this point it will have to take one of two courses: it must either declare for more interference or for none—that is, it must boldly say that the Federal Government must either govern the South more, or cease to govern it. We must either leave life and property to the protection of the local laws, or we must protect the Southern people against swindling legislators as well as against armed marauders. We have no right to assume one responsibility and decline the other. To the question, "What are you to do when the local government is in a league with the Ku-klux?" we reply by asking, "What *ought* you to do when the local government is made up of swindlers and is in a league with the Devil?" We can, if we please, do nothing in either case; but, if we send one United States marshal after the midnight assassin in Spartanburg, we ought to send another after the thieving official in Charleston. The subject is one of tremendous moment. It cannot and it ought not to be shirked.

The Convention must, too, deal with the question of the suspension of the habeas corpus with perfect clearness. Congress has lodged the power of suspending the writ, where it was never lodged before since the writ was invented, in the discretion of a single man, who may at any time expose the population of a whole State to arbitrary imprisonment by his own proclamation, without giving any reason, or for reasons furnished him secretly and orally. That General Grant has not abused this power is an argument in its favor which M. Rouher or Marshal Leboeuf might urge, but which no American can seriously be expected to answer. If the Cincinnati party is going into office, it ought to go in on a platform which shall settle finally and solemnly and clearly the question, whether Congress can either in peace or war transfer to anybody for any purpose the right of deciding when it is proper or necessary to create a dictatorship. No other legislative body has ever parted with such a prerogative before. The matter does not concern the South alone. It concerns the whole country.

As regards candidates, the resource of taking an obscure or unobjectionable or second-rate man is not open to the Convention. It would be ludicrous, after all the denunciation we have heard of General Grant and his followers, to put in office another man either as inexperienced as he, or as ignorant of law and politics as he, or as easily influenced by worthless men as he has frequently shown himself to be. The spectacle of the tag-rag and bob-tail of the political world following a reform President into the White House as "his friends" and "confidential advisers," "to make up slates" for him, or show him how to "run the machine," is something for which the country is not prepared, and something the mere thought of which would make the country "laugh consumedly." Moreover, there is no such dissatisfaction with Grant as to make the selection of an obscure candidate feasible. The condition of affairs is such—there are so many things on which any violent or sudden change of policy would be in the highest degree mischievous—that the country will not and ought not to entrust the executive power to anybody about whose character it knows little or nothing, whose qualities have undergone no conspicuous test, and whose career has afforded no means of judging how he is likely to act under any given set of circumstances. In short, the new candidate for the Presidency must be a first-rate man, a distinguished man, a man versed in affairs, and who has filled places of trust and difficulty with ability and fidelity, and who is as well known for the soundness of his judgment and the good repute of his associates as for the purity of his own character. If any attempt is made to palm off on reformers a second-rate man of any class—a makeshift or blatherskite; or a faithful, harmless body, of whom nothing bad is known; or a feather-headed body, who gets a new set of opinions with every new almanac; or a reliable gentleman, who "takes care of his friends," we trust they will let him fight his battle in his own way. If it should prove that this was what the new movement led to, the sooner everybody who was interested in good government left it, the better; for nothing would do more to postpone reform indefinitely, to make the very name a laughing-stock, and to fasten the yoke of the Toms and Rufes and Hanks on our necks more firmly than ever, than a spectacle of this kind. Under a man worthy of the position, there will be no disgrace and no discouragement in defeat. The fight will be, under the circumstances, at least a warning and protest, which will bear fruit, if not immediately, before long.

#### THE CIVIL-SERVICE REGULATIONS.

THE relation which the new civil-service regulations bear to those issued in December last is supplementary. The new rules do not replace the old ones or even amend them; they rather fortify them and lay down provisions for carrying them into effect. The grouping of offices originally contemplated has been completed. From an examination of both sets of regulations, there now seem to be four classes of offices in the civil service, for admission to which different methods are provided. (The classification is not expressed in the rules; we make it for our own convenience.) 1. Those offices applicants for which must undergo competitive examination before appointment, such as clerks in the departments at Washington, etc. 2. Those offices to which an appointment is made by inspection and comparison of certificates, but before entering upon which the person appointed must first pass a satisfactory examination, such as consuls receiving between \$1,000 and \$3,000. 3. Those offices to which an appointment is, if possible, to be made from subordinate grades in the same department, but for which the person appointed is not examined at all, such as collectors of customs, etc. 4. Those offices to which appointments are made just as they have been made hitherto, such as foreign ministers, heads of departments, etc.

In the first class are clerks in the various departments at Washington or elsewhere, who will be chosen by competitive examination for promotion in the service or for admission to its lowest grades. The manner of appointment will be as follows: The Advisory Board, which an act of Congress has empowered the Presi-

dent to appoint, will have under its supervision other boards to conduct the examinations. A vacancy in the lowest grade of an office is to be publicly announced, and due notice given of the examination which is to fill it. A list of the most successful applicants, in their order of merit, not exceeding three, will then be prepared and submitted to the nominating power, and from these the appointment shall be made. For a vacancy in a grade above the lowest, officers in the lower grades shall be first examined, from whom, if possible, the appointment shall be made. The manner of promotion will be precisely the same as the manner of appointment to the lowest grade. Examinations for vacancies outside of Washington will be held at the offices where the vacancies occur. Examinations for clerkships at Washington will be held not only at Washington but at such other places as the Advisory Board shall direct. When the number of applicants is so great as to make the examination of all out of the question, the examiners shall select a number of those apparently best qualified, and notify them to attend. This modification is necessary, for in any large city there might be an altogether impracticable number of young men with good public-school educations, who would be happy to try their luck for places that would lighten their work and treble their pay. But it certainly offers a loop-hole for some of the old influences to effect an entrance. The examiners are not restricted to the papers of the applicants. Endorsements of character must be in writing, but the hearing of verbal recommendations is not expressly prohibited. At any rate, the character of the endorsers should, and their position must, have weight with the examiners. Moreover, it will be to the interest of the examiners to cut down the number of applicants as far as possible, and save themselves the labor of overlooking a multitude of papers. We are not finding fault; we do not see that anything else can be done; but we think it quite plain that unadulterated competitive examination will exist much more in theory than in practice.

For the second class, examination is necessary to appointment, but there is no competitive examination. This class includes consuls receiving in salary or fees a sum between \$1,000 and \$3,000. Here a vacancy may be filled by the transfer of some other person already in the consular service, who need not undergo examination. But if no transfer is made, the place will be thrown open to applicants from outside. Applications must be accompanied by certificates, on inspection and comparison of which the Secretary of State will name the person apparently best qualified. The "inspection of certificates" will mean just what the authorities propose it shall mean. We should judge that verbal pressure—i. e., the interviews with members of Congress—is meant to be precluded, and that the choice is to be made altogether from the certificates. But the prohibition is not expressly stated. There are two things which enter into a good certificate—what is said, and who says it. All recommendations, we imagine, very much resemble each other. Public men, even if they know something of the persons they recommend, are not sufficiently accustomed to definite expression, of themselves, to draw the traits of the applicants with very much accuracy. They fall into such phrases as "gentleman of high character and great intelligence," "capable and honest," "fine abilities and excellent address," etc. So that, as a matter of fact, the Secretary will be compelled to decide, not so much upon the merits of the applicants as upon the merits of the endorsers. Then, whose opinion is to be preferred—the most influential politician's, or that of the most competent authority? If President Woolsey recommends one man and Senator Morton another, whose recommendation will be taken? It is plain that it will depend altogether upon the character and courage of the person who has the appointment, whether he selects the applicant who seems to be most competent or that candidate who has the strongest political backing. The person named must undergo examination before he receives his appointment.

In the third class of appointments, no examination at all is required, but the new regulations lay down some restrictions and limitations. Under this head come the customs collectors, survey-

ors, etc. The regulations provide that when a vacancy occurs, the proper authorities shall first ascertain if any subordinates of the office are qualified to fill it. If any such persons are found, their names will be presented to the President, who will select one of them for appointment. If, however, there is no competent subordinate, the appointment will be made at the President's discretion. It would hardly happen that any great office could be carried on under the many changes and in the long interregnums without one or more subordinates who would be as efficient chiefs as they are indispensable assistants; and the President will, no doubt, have that immediate opportunity to practise his intentions which all persons turning over a new leaf so ardently desire. To the class in question belong the heads of bureaus at Washington, postmasters and collectors, surveyors, appraisers, and naval officers of the custom-houses. For vacancies in the offices of Receiver and Register of the Land Office, Pension Agent, and Marshal, no precedence is given to subordinates, because there are none to speak of. In all cases, however, the applicants must reside in the district in which the vacancy occurs. Applications for these positions must be made in writing, and the rules promise, as in the other cases, that the person apparently best qualified shall be appointed. Vacancies in the United States offices in any Territory, except those of Judge and Indian Agent, shall be filled by persons domiciled in that Territory. The fourth class includes all those offices to which appointments shall be made as they have been made hitherto.

The proclamation accompanying the new regulations informs the employees of the Government that henceforward "honesty and efficiency, not political activity, will determine the tenure of office"—a strange thing, surely, to be said in a state document, and one which the future student of our history will not skip as dull reading. On the score of frankness it leaves nothing to be desired, and though we do not think confession atones for the fault confessed, we yet approve of calling a spade a spade. It will do no good to cover up our imperfections by formal state-talk and grand indefinite phrases. We wish, however, that the proclamation had stated explicitly that the character of an officer's political opinions should have nothing to do with the tenure of office. "Political activity shall not determine the tenure of office." That must mean activity on the side of the Government; and it seems to imply that a leaning towards the Administration will not only be acceptable, but quite necessary. There is an ominous undertone in that paragraph which should cause an opponent of the party in power, should any such chance to be in office, to be careful how he trusts too far the enlightened and liberal opinions of the Administration.

#### SECRETARY ROBESON AND THE SECOR CLAIM.

SINCE we made, last week, the charge against Secretary Robeson of having illegally paid \$93,000 on the Secor claim, Senator Wilson has appeared at the Cooper Institute, and asserted that this charge was unfounded, and that Mr. Trumbull's account of it, in his speech at the Liberal Republican meeting, was inaccurate. Mr. Wilson, at the same time, read a written statement of the case, doubtless prepared at Washington, as the true version. We shall now show that Senator Wilson's own story is a misrepresentation, and that the written statement which he read was another; it is charitable but difficult to suppose that both he and the writer of the statement were ignorant of the facts.

During the war, in 1862, the Secors contracted to build for the Government three iron-clad monitors—the *Mahopac*, *Tecumseh*, and *Manhattan*—for \$1,380,000. The vessels were completed in 1864. All bills and claims of the contractors were presented, while the vessels were being built and after their completion, to a board of which Admiral Gregory, and afterward Admiral Ringgold, was the head. On the report of these boards the contractors were paid the contract price, and, for extra work over and above the contract price, \$521,195 15; and, in 1867, the whole matter was settled so far as the Navy Department was concerned. The contractors had other claims which the Department refused to allow. They then appealed to Congress, which passed the following law:

"CHAP. CXLVII.—An Act for the Relief of certain Contractors for the Construction of Vessels-of-War and Steam Machinery.

"Be it enacted, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United

*States of America in Congress assembled*, That the Secretary of the Navy is hereby authorized and directed to investigate the claims of all contractors for building vessels-of-war and steam machinery for the same under contracts made after the first day of May, eighteen hundred and sixty-one, and prior to the first day of January, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, and said investigation to be made upon the following basis: he shall ascertain the additional cost which was necessarily incurred by each contractor in the completion of his work by reason of any changes or alterations in the plans or specifications required, and delays in the prosecution of the work occasioned by the Government, which were not provided for in the original contract; but no allowance for any advance in the price of labor or material shall be considered, unless such advance occurred during the prolonged time for completing the work rendered necessary by the delay resulting from the action of the Government aforesaid, and then only when such advance could not have been avoided by the exercise of ordinary prudence and diligence on the part of the contractor; and from such additional cost, to be ascertained as aforesaid, there shall be deducted such sum as may have been paid each contractor for any reason heretofore over and above the contract price; and shall report to Congress a tabular statement of each case, which shall contain the name of the contractor, a description of the work, the contract price, the whole increased cost of the work over the contract price, and the amount of such increased cost caused by the delay and action of the Government as aforesaid, and the amount already paid the contractor over and above the contract price.

"Approved March 2, 1867."

The concluding section, which we omit, related solely to the *Dunderberg*.

Under the above act a Board was organized to examine the claims of Secor & Co., Perine, Secor & Co., and other contractors, and on their report the Secretary of the Navy reported to Congress that there was due Secor & Co. and Perine, Secor & Co. \$115,539 01, and thereupon Congress in 1863 passed the following act:

"[PRIVATE—No. 76.]

"An Act for the Relief of certain Government Contractors.

"Be it enacted, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed to pay to Secor and Company and Perine, Secor and Company, the sum of one hundred and fifteen thousand five hundred and thirty-nine dollars and one cent; to Harrison Loring, thirty-eight thousand five hundred and thirteen dollars; to the Atlantic Iron Works, of Boston, Massachusetts, four thousand eight hundred and fifty-two dollars and fifty-eight cents; to Aquila Adams, the sum of four thousand eight hundred and fifty-two dollars and fifty-eight cents; to M. F. Merritt, the sum of four thousand eight hundred and fifty-two dollars and fifty-eight cents; to Tomlinson, Harteepee and Company, fifteen thousand one hundred and seventy-one dollars; to Harlan and Hollingsworth, the sum of thirty-eight thousand five hundred and thirteen dollars; and to Poole and Hunt, the sum of three thousand six hundred and ninety-four dollars and eighty-one cents, being the amount found to be due to each of the parties herein respectively named by the Secretary of the Navy under an act of Congress entitled 'An act for the relief of certain contractors for the construction of vessels-of-war and steam machinery,' approved March two, eighteen hundred and sixty-seven, which shall be in full discharge of all claims against the United States on account of the vessels upon which the Board made the allowance, as per their report, under the act of March two, eighteen hundred and sixty-seven.

"Approved July 13, 1863."

The \$115,539 01 was paid to the Secors and their receipt given in 1863.

This, according to the act of Congress, was "in full discharge of all claims against the United States on account of the vessels upon which the Board made the allowance." Notwithstanding the payment of the contract price, \$1,380,000, and \$521,195 15 for extra work, and afterwards of \$115,539 01 in full of all claims on account of the vessels constructed by Secor & Co. and Perine, Secor & Co., the present Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Robeson, in 1869, directed a reinvestigation of the claims of these contractors by a Board of Officers in his Department, and on their report paid the contractors, in 1870, \$93,000 more. In doing this Mr. Robeson, we repeat, violated (1) the settled rule of the Department not to open accounts settled by a previous Administration, except possibly in the case of newly discovered evidence; (2) a positive act of Congress, which directed that the \$115,539 01 should be in full discharge of all claims against the United States on account of the vessels upon which it was paid; and (3) another statute by taking money appropriated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1870, to pay a claim which arose six years before.

Mr. Wilson, in his New York speech, in replying to Mr. Trumbull, who had charged Mr. Robeson with paying money out of the Treasury illegally, and on a claim that had once been settled, said: "A Board was appointed under the law of 1867, to examine into damages, not into work done, not into material furnished." The law directed the Secretary of the Navy "to investigate the claims [not damages] of all contractors for building vessels-of-war," etc.

This, we see, was a plain misstatement on the part of Mr. Wilson; but he made another, for he further said this claim of \$93,000 "was never referred to a Board at all," and in the written statement he furnished, the source of which cannot be mistaken, it is said to be "for work actually done"—a

debt"; but the fact is, the whole contract price, and more than half a million besides for extra work, had been paid by Mr. Welles, the former Secretary of the Navy, on the report of Boards who passed on the bills of the contractors at the time, and refused to allow the \$93,000.

Mr. Wilson's written statement further alleges that the act of 1868 did not provide that the sum of \$115,539 01 should be "in full for all claims on account of the vessels," etc., but of the claims "upon which the Board made their allowance as per report." Why, then, were the words "on account of the vessels" inserted in the law? The language of the law is, "all claims on account of the vessels upon which the Board made their report," etc., and to say that it did not embrace all claims on account of those vessels is a plain perversion of the very letter, as well as the whole spirit, of the act. Worse remains to be told, however. The Senate Committee on Naval Affairs made, May 12, 1870 (Report No. 163), a report in the case of various contractors who had been paid under the law of 1867, and after enumerating them, including Secor, and mentioning the amount paid to each of them, including the \$115,539 01 to Secor, it says:

"On the 13th of July, 1868, an act was passed directing the payment of these amounts to these parties, by which act it was declared that these payments should be 'in full discharge of all claims against the United States on account of the vessels upon which the Board made the allowance, as per their report, under the act of March 2, 1867.'"

"Under the stress of an overpowering necessity, as they allege, these parties received those amounts. That in law such receipt is a complete bar to all further recourse, cannot be denied; but still the question recurs, is it just for the Government to plead the bar? After deliberate consideration, the committee are of opinion that it is not. In their judgment, the Government ought not, upon grounds of technical law, to deny equitable relief. It cannot afford to be unjust; it ought never to refuse to refuse to be just."

Thus we see that this Committee pronounced the act a complete prohibition of any further payments, and that in defiance of this declaration Mr. Robeson did make further payment, as we said last week, "without any warrant of law." It may have been just in morals to make a further payment, but in that matter Congress, and not Mr. Robeson, was the judge. We do not accuse him of corruption, but we do accuse him of flagrant disregard of the law of the land, which we should condemn more severely if it had not become almost a habit among Government officers, and one which we wish to see stopped somehow and at all hazards—none the less because Mr. Robeson can doubtless still get his conduct condoned, as Mr. Boutwell did, by "a strict party vote."

#### THE ENGLISH FARM LABORERS.

LONDON, April 5, 1872.

AN event has recently taken place of far more importance than all the struggles between the ins and the outs which generally absorb the attention of politicians. The English agricultural laborer has given signs of independence—nay, more, he has already given proofs that he is capable of adopting the mode of warfare which has been brought to perfection in the war between labor and capital. Nothing could have been less expected a short time ago. The utter inertness and indifference of the country poor has been hitherto accepted as amongst the primary data in the calculations of all parties. When, for example, it was proposed to extend the suffrage, nobody ever thought of giving a vote to poor Hodge, the ploughman. Conservatives would have regarded such a measure much as an American Democrat regarded the concession of the ballot to the blacks; Radicals, on the other hand, fancied that Hodge was so degraded that to give him a vote would simply be to give a vote to his master. Any revolt against the established order of things was as little expected from him as from the horses that he drove and the cattle that he tended. The lowest social stratum in the country districts was regarded as a dead, hopeless mass, one degree removed from serfdom, and scarcely elevated above actual slavery. The utmost that was hoped was that by slow degrees some sort of ambition might slowly filter down to them in the course of generations. Well, it appears that the process has already taken place to a far greater extent than had been hoped or feared. The mass has been infiltrated with new ideas. *Bos locutus est*; or, in other words, the agricultural laborer has taken to forming trade-unions and striking. Though at present only a small part of the country has joined in the movement, there are abundant signs of widely-spread sympathy; and it is impossible for any man to say what explosions may follow when the train has once been laid.

The movement which has hitherto attracted most attention has begun in Warwickshire. The rate of wages in that part of the country has been higher than in the Southern and Western districts, owing to the neighborhood of great manufacturing centres such as Birmingham. If the comfort of the laborer has been somewhat greater, the ambition has been stimulated in

a still higher degree; and the laborers there have learnt from their neighbors to give voice to their discontent. It seems that a man named Arch, an agricultural laborer by birth, was seized by a desire to better himself. He left his native village in search of higher pay, and, being a man of evident ability, he succeeded in raising himself materially, and bringing up a large family decently. At one period he became a preacher in a small dissenting sect, and acquired facility in addressing his own class. Arch appears to be the mainspring of the present movement; he is the chief missionary of the new propaganda; he has been for the last few weeks addressing numerous and enthusiastic meetings, forming unions which take root and spread with amazing rapidity, and encouraging the laborers to make demands against which the farmers have at present held out, and which have led to a very serious strike. For some time the movement attracted comparatively small attention elsewhere. The press, however, has become alive to its importance in the Easter vacation; reporters have been swarming in the district; and Mr. Auberon Herbert, Mr. Jenkins—the author of "Ginx's Baby"—and other philanthropical agitators have been addressing crowded meetings and generally encouraging the movement.

It is not easy for any one not actually on the spot and familiar with the details of the question to form any trustworthy opinion as to the policy of the particular demands now put forward. It is easy, indeed, to see that the agricultural laborer is undeniably right in seeking to better his position. It is a standing puzzle to persons in a different class how he can manage to keep soul and body together on the miserable pittance which he receives; it is questionable whether, as prices have risen without a corresponding rise of wages, the physical condition of the population is not actually degenerating. One of the correspondents of the *Daily News* tried the experiment of living for a day or two as a member of a peasant family. He appears to have broken down under the hardships. There is something miserably pathetic about his account of the discolored water which did duty for tea, and of the wretched scraps of bacon which were all that his hosts ever saw in the shape of meat. One does not wonder that a man accustomed to the rather profuse style of eating and drinking customary in our upper classes should have declared that directly after dinner he felt himself as "hollow as a drum." Indeed, it is urged with great apparent force that the farmers' policy in paying low wages is a bad one from a pecuniary point of view, inasmuch as a well-fed animal—be it horse or man—can work more effectually than an ill-fed one; and the agricultural laborer shows a marked deficiency in vital power owing to his being kept at starvation wages. When transported to the North, and receiving wages enough to buy sufficient food, it is said that the poor, half-fed shadows of men fill out and do twice as much work as they could before. The family in which this correspondent lived contained seven persons, and depended on the earnings of the father, who received 12s. a week, and of the eldest boy, who received 3s. When asked to explain how this sum was made to provide for rent, bread, schooling, clothing, and firing on the most modest scale, to say nothing of beer or of laying up a trifle for rainy days, the poor wife was utterly incapable of giving an explanation. Yet, in some way or other, the problem was practically solved by her, as it is by thousands of other families, which often receive even a lower rate of wages. The children were in this case at school; the family were all respectably and neatly clothed; and, except for the wretched bill of fare, it would scarcely have been seen that they were in a state of grinding poverty. Indeed, I think it must strike any traveller in our agricultural districts that, inadequate as the wages notoriously are, the external aspect of the population is, in certain respects, better than one would expect. Comparing them, for example, with a poor district in France or Germany, the English poor have perhaps a more stolid and depressed look, but they seem generally to be better clothed and fed. Meat, one must remember after all, enters into the regular diet of but a small minority of the agricultural population in any part of Europe. Still, if your readers like to try a little calculation as to how the bare necessities for a family of seven can be provided for a sum of 15s. a week, or £39 a year, I think they will be puzzled; and there are many districts where wages are lower. One or two explanations may be given. In the first place, the wages do not represent the whole earnings of a man by any means. There are seasons at which he receives more. Here, for example, is an account of the amount received in a year by a laborer whose wages were nominally 12s. a week:

Turnip hoeing, . . .	3 weeks at 16s.,	£3 8s.
Mowing, . . .	3 " 30s.,	4 10
Harvest, . . .	14 " 24s.,	16 16
Turnip clearing, . .	1 " 18s.,	0 18
Remainder of year,	31 " 12s.,	18 12
		£43 4s.

which, though still small enough, is a considerable advance on £31 4s., which would be the result of the simple 12s. In the next place, there is a

good deal of charity—sometimes a good deal too much—distributed in parishes where the clergyman or the squire is rich and liberal. And, finally, the farmer is frequently in friendly relations with the men he employs and gives them occasional assistance in a variety of small ways. By such means it is possible to account for the fact that human beings do contrive to live and grow up and keep out of the workhouse, on wages the nominal amount of which is preposterously small. But, though many such facts go to explain the non-starvation of the population, they do not prove that it is in a prosperous or even in a tolerable condition.

Be that as it may, they clearly do not intend to tolerate their condition any longer. The movement seems not unlikely to spread through England. In Lincolnshire, there is already a determined struggle between men and masters, which has lasted for a month. Probably you will wonder how the men can save, from such a wretched pittance as they receive, enough to support them on strike. How is it that a man on the brink of starvation can carry on the dangerous warfare in which well-paid artisans have so frequently been beaten? The answer explains the real strength of the movement. A certain amount of external assistance has been given; but the laborers have a much more formidable weapon at hand. The demand for labor in the manufacturing districts is so great that they only have to migrate to another part of England to find higher wages and a ready welcome. Many offers have also been made from various colonial agencies, and the stream of English emigration across the Atlantic seems to be setting in with unusual vigor. For some time past, an excellent clergyman, Canon Girdlestone, has been exciting the indignation of the Devonshire farmers by encouraging a migration from the South to the North of England; and the current thus started will doubtless flow with increased rapidity and regularity. In short, the laborers have the unanswerable argument, that the farmers have no longer a monopoly of the demand. Till recently a country lout supposed that the boundaries of the parish were identical with those of the world, and would as soon have thought of migrating even to Manchester as of taking a trip to the moon. Now that he has discovered that he is not actually rooted in the soil, it is not impossible that a movement may take place of the same kind as that which has diminished the population of Ireland. I have never thought much of emigration as a social panacea; and a state emigration in particular is likely to stimulate the evils it is expected to redress. The shiftless pauperized part of the population has a wonderful power of expanding so as to fill any artificial void. But the case is different in a voluntary emigration of agricultural laborers. A very small diminution of their numbers would be enough to raise the rate of wages, and the mere threat of emigration is one which at once places them in a comparatively independent position.

In conclusion, I may observe that the present demand in Warwickshire is that the rate of wages should be raised from 12s. to 16s. a week; the farmers have consented to raise it to 15s.; but the men, whether wisely or not, have declined to accept the compromise. The issue of this particular struggle is still doubtful; but its success or failure is comparatively unimportant. When a new spirit has entered the agricultural poor, it is fully clear that the old order is doomed, though it may not expire till after many struggles and, it is to be feared, much suffering.

I have no space left to speak of the topic upon which the newspapers are just now most occupied, namely, Mr. Disraeli's speech at Manchester. There is no danger at present that speech-making will be a lost art amongst us, and I shall have abundant opportunities for commenting upon the policy which Mr. Disraeli announces. I would rather end this letter by noticing the loss of a man whose influence as the leader of a religious party has long been on the decline, but who has done good work in his day, and has always been regarded with singular personal affection—I mean Mr. Maurice. In this, as in general elevation of character, he somewhat resembled Mazzini, whose death has recently caused, as it of course deserved to do, a much wider sensation of regret. But few men, however conspicuous, have excited warmer feelings in those with whom they came personally in contact than Mr. Maurice. His nature was of the kindest and sweetest that I have ever known, and many who could never share his spirit will deeply regret him. Intellectually, he was a pupil of Coleridge, and, like his teacher, burdened his own mind and injured the value of his teaching in the hopeless attempt to represent the Thirty-nine Articles as the highest incarnation of pure reason. As honest a man as ever lived, he succeeded in offending both parties, the heterodox by using the old dogmatic language, and the orthodox by using it in some new transcendental sense; but he won also the far rarer success of being beloved by all good men on the two opposite sides. The world is rapidly drifting away from his point of view; but he will be remembered as one who did his best to preserve the true spirit of religion as the form in which it was clothed became obsolete. One only wishes that he had hit upon a better scheme of doing it.

## THE OVERGROWTH OF BERLIN.

BERLIN, April 2, 1872.

IN No. 347 of the *Nation* (Feb. 22) the sudden over-populating of Berlin was referred to under its financial and social aspects. The sanitary and moral bearings of this condition of things are now attracting the attention of men of science and of philanthropy. The evil goes on continually from bad to worse. It is no sign either of poverty or humility that, in this capital of the Germanic Empire, one "has not where to lay his head." Many of the country gentry who came here to celebrate the King's birthday, after "roughing it" for a night upon the floor of a restaurant, were glad to betake themselves to the second-rate hotels at Potsdam for the accommodation of a bed—the resource of "furnished rooms" in Berlin having quite failed them in these times. For days before the moving crisis of April 1, the advertisement of a dwelling to let was sure to block the street in the neighborhood with a crowd of homeless contestants for the last chance. The city is turned quite topsy-turvy with the multitude of removals, and many a load of furniture may be seen wending its way toward Charlottenburg, the very tread of the horses expressing the despondency with which unhappy housekeepers forsake the city for the suburbs.

I am almost afraid of suggesting to New York landlords some new devices of oppression by reporting those of their brethren of the craft in Berlin; but from specimens of leases which have fallen under my notice, it would appear that a tenant has no rights which a landlord is bound to respect. These leases are for first-class dwellings; yet the tenant must oblige himself to pay his rent in advance; to give six months' notice of his intention to quit; to surrender his furniture in the event of not promptly prepaying his quarterly dues; to keep the dwelling in thorough repair at his own charges, even for damages by fire, hail, or other calamity; and if he shall make any improvements—such as double-windows, bath-room, gas, etc.—to leave such fixtures to the landlord without compensation, or pay the landlord for restoring things as they were! It is further stipulated in such contracts, that should the house prove unhealthy, by reason of water in the cellar or dampness in the walls, the tenant shall have no redress against the landlord, but he himself must provide against the insalubrity of the house by keeping his own apartments well aired in summer, and thoroughly warmed in winter. From such contracts, it would appear that the Berlin landlord is master of the situation, and fully equal to the occasion; the extraordinary demand for dwellings enables him to dictate terms which, in ordinary circumstances, a gentleman would reject as insulting.

When a tenant has submitted to become the victim of such a contract, he finds entrenched behind the rent a reserved fire of taxes. Certain of these he must pay to the landlord, under the name of Gebäudesteuer; others, to the ubiquitous and inexorable Prussian tax-gatherer. And here is put in practice the one objectionable recommendation of Mr. Wells's theory of taxation, viz.: that the assessment shall be in the ratio of rent. To salaried men and persons of a narrow fixed income this is a serious injustice, since with such tenants rent, instead of being a measure of ability to pay, is the most positive and weighty drawback upon the means of living. The Berlin landlord this year extorts a hundred dollars more rent from a twelve-hundred dollar professor; "So, ho," says the tax-gatherer, "you are paying four hundred dollars rent instead of three hundred, and I must raise your tax accordingly." This test is applied to local and general taxes, and there is an income tax besides. This financial prelude brings personal sanitary and moral sequences; but it is the public aspects of rent in relation to health and morals with which I am now concerned.

Given a population of 800,000 to be housed in 25,000 buildings, the average of 32 persons to a house may not seem excessive, when it is considered that these houses are subdivided into about 160,000 dwellings upon their several flats. But a closer analysis has developed the fact that there are to-day in Berlin full 300,000 persons living in dwellings that have but a single room that can be warmed; over 180,000 in dwellings of two such rooms; and nearly 90,000 in suites of but three rooms each; showing that at least 60 per cent. of the population live in a degree of physical discomfort unfavorable to health.

Dr. Schwabe, Director of the City Bureau of Statistics, has prepared a tabular view of the relative density of population to house-accommodation in the five principal cities of Europe. In London, the average number to a house is 8 persons; in Berlin, 32; in Paris, 35; in Petersburg, 52; and in Vienna, 55. This comparison is fair, with the exception of London, where the size and style of houses differ essentially from the Continental system of flats. In London, rent absorbs from one-tenth to one-eighth of income; in Berlin, one-fifth to one-fourth; in Paris, over one-fourth; and in Vienna, one-third. The rate of mortality seems to follow an arithmetical progression in analogy with the ratio of tenants; thus, for every 1,000 the yearly deaths are, in London 24, in Berlin 25, in Paris 23, in Petersburg 41, and in Vienna

47. The same curious analogy runs through the ratio of illegitimate births; there are in London 4 per cent., in Berlin 16, in Paris 20, in Petersburg 26, and in Vienna 51.

So many causes influence both mortality and illegitimacy—especially the latter—that only the crudest philosophy would generalize from these data an argument for or against a particular mode of house-building, yet the relations of the figures are too striking to be dismissed as accidental. In two ways the overcrowding of cities tends to immorality; first, among the poor, through the huddling together of the sexes in confined apartments, and, next, among the well-to-do, by making rent so formidable an item in family living that many seek an easy substitute for marriage, facilities for which are also created by the hotel-and-lodging system which overcrowding favors or necessitates.

The last volume of the "Transactions of the Social Science Association" (British) contains two or three valuable papers upon this subject; one by Dr. Henry W. Rumsey, especially, embodies the testimony of eminent physicians that the overcrowding of cities, and the overpeopling of dwellings and streets, are in themselves fruitful causes of epidemic disease and of physical and moral degradation. Indeed, men of the highest scientific authority do not hesitate to say that such overcrowding, the aggregation of such masses in small spaces, tends to the physical deterioration of the human race. Mr. George Godwin, F.R.S., brands it as "a deadly evil." With an Englishman, of course, the first remedy is an act of Parliament: "That, as for the overcrowding of persons in a house, so also for the overcrowding of houses in a given area, there should be a limit to density of population fixed by law." Certainly, the evil is so vast and so portentous that it calls for all the wisdom of the statesman, all the research of the scientist, and all the zeal of the philanthropist to cope with it in the interest of humanity.

AUSWANDERER.

## Correspondence.

### THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY AND THE LATE MR. STEARNS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Upon reading your notice of an article on "John Brown in Massachusetts" that appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly* for April, I observe you have been misled by a statement therein made, that the two hundred rifles held by Captain Brown in the month of March, 1858, did not belong to, and were not under the control of, the Massachusetts State Kansas Aid Committee, but were the personal property of the late Mr. George L. Stearns. In order to correct this statement, I beg leave to say that I have in my possession the report of the Secretary of the Committee referred to, made in the month of September, 1858, or six months later than the time mentioned by the writer in the *Atlantic*. This report is signed "F. B. Sanborn, Secy." It embraces the assets of the Committee at that date. The first item reads thus: "190 rifles in the hands of our agent, \$3,800."

Directly following the enumeration of assets, I find this paragraph: "By a recent vote of the Executive Committee these are to be converted into cash by the chairman, and held in trust for two years to meet any liabilities against us, or any exigencies hereafter occurring, at the end of which time the balance is to be paid over to the authorities of Kansas, for the benefit of common schools."

This evidence is conclusive as to the real ownership of the arms in question. They belonged to the Committee; they were not the property of Mr. Stearns, and he had no control over them except as a member and the chairman of the Committee.

R. P. HALLOWELL.

Boston, April 19, 1872.

### PROFESSOR MORSE'S FATHER AND THE UNITARIANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 11, page 242, you say, in speaking of the late Professor Morse, "His father, by the way, was a great polemic, settled over a church at Charlestown, Massachusetts, whose life was made miserable by the spectacle of the Unitarian success in the controversy among the Congregational Churches. It was literally and seriously made miserable, for he was an ardent champion of all the extreme Calvinistic doctrines, and was compelled to look on while the Unitarians turned the tables on their former fellow-worshippers, and got the churches into their own hands." We have italicized the words that contain a very common opinion, indeed, but which look strange in a journal so generally accurate as yours. The Unitarians never "got the churches," but only some of them, "into their own hands." In Clark's "Historical Sketch of the Congregational Churches in Massachusetts" (pp. 270-275), you will find the results of that controversy as follows: "At the

opening of this controversy, which, for the sake of a precise date, we may assign to 1810, the whole number of Congregational Churches in Massachusetts was three hundred and sixty-one, all of them founded on the old Puritan faith—at least, all professedly Trinitarian. In the course of this controversy, ninety-six of these same churches passed over to Unitarianism, besides thirty parishes." Eighty-one churches were "exiled," i.e., driven from their meeting-houses by an unfriendly parish, because they continued to hold to the faith of their fathers. "When the division was completed, there were one hundred and thirty-five Unitarian and four hundred and nine Orthodox Congregational Churches in the State"—*forty-eight more* than at the beginning of the separation.

These historic facts do not warrant the assertion that the Unitarians "got the churches into their own hands." A word more; in 1867 the Unitarians had one hundred and seventy societies in Massachusetts, a gain of thirty-five; the Orthodox, four hundred and ninety-three, a gain of eighty-four. Unitarian societies in the United States, in 1871, were three hundred and forty-seven; Orthodox Congregational Churches were, at the same time, three thousand one hundred and one. So, neither in the State of Massachusetts, nor in the United States, have the Unitarians ever got the churches of the Congregational order into their hands.

While, then, Professor Morse's father "was literally and seriously made miserable" by the controversy, the results show that his misery was relieved by many cheering hopes. Had he lived to see the end of the controversy, his joy would have been great that the churches of his fathers suffered so little from the wave that swept so many Lutheran churches in Germany, and two hundred and thirty-five of the two hundred and fifty-eight Presbyterian churches in England, from their moorings.

A. H. R.

Springfield, Ohio, April 15, 1872.

[Our language was rather careless, as we were thinking rather of the Boston region in which Mr. Jedediah Morse's work lay than of the State at large or the country. We assure "A. H. R." that we are aware that there were some of the Orthodox left after the Unitarians had had their best success, and that there are plenty of them still extant. But Mr. Morse had the unhappiness to see in 1808 only one Orthodox church in Boston, all the others having been got away by the Unitarians; and as a biographer of his says, "his persevering opposition to the so-called 'liberal' views brought on him a persecution which affected deeply his naturally delicate health."—ED. NATION.]

## Notes.

THE Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society, No. 36, contains Dr. W. Koner's annual list of geographical publications, embracing not only separate works, but the titles of articles in periodicals, and also maps and plans ("Uebersicht der vom December, 1870, bis Ende November, 1871, auf dem Gebiete der Geographie erschienenen Werke, Aufsätze, Karten und Pläne"). The fulness and accuracy of this record are beyond all praise. It is carefully classified, and covers 176 pages of fine type. The term "Geography" is used in its most comprehensive sense, and we find, for example, such entries as these: "Report of the Commissioners appointed to enquire into the Treatment of Immigrants in British Guiana"; "Jahresbericht des Konsulats zu Puerto Cabello"; "Statistica forestale del regno d'Italia"; "Das Lager des Attila in den catalanischen Gefilden"; "Bevölkerung und Viehstand in Dalmatien"; Tylor's "Primitive Culture"; Björnson's "Love and Life in Norway"; Baedeker's Guide-books; "Etudes sur les Glaciers actuels et anciens du Caucase," etc., etc. (New York: L. W. Schmidt.)—Books and papers too good to be thrown away, but no longer desired on account of want of room, or for whatever other reason, may usefully be sent to the U. S. Military Post Library Association, whose headquarters are at No. 58 Broadway. When one considers that there are 279 army posts spread over our great territory, and that the larger proportion of these are distant from all the conveniences and resources of civilization, infrequently reached by mails, amid savage and dispiriting surroundings, and without excitement or diversion of any kind except card-playing, one sees not only what a welcome thing it must be to obtain plenty of wholesome reading, but how plain a duty it is to supply this reading, if merely to keep out the flood of nasty literature which finds its way thither, and to which the unnatural solitariness of the soldier only too naturally predisposes him. The association above named seems to be sufficiently regardful of the religious welfare of our soldiers and officers; and the special encouragement they need, apart from pecu-

niary contributions, is towards building up post-libraries and reading-rooms. For this purpose, good secular works and papers rather than tracts would seem to be the proper sort of gifts to make. To any one desiring to be informed of the character and aims of the association, we presume the corresponding secretary will be glad to send a copy of its last annual report.—“Studies in Poetry and Philosophy,” by J. C. Shairp; and “On the Lord’s Prayer,” by the late J. F. D. Maurice, are announced by Hurd & Houghton.—Dean Stanley’s “Lectures on the Church of Scotland”; the “First and Second Kings” of Lange’s Commentary; George Macdonald’s “Hidden Life, and other Poems”; and Erekman-Chatrion’s “Plébiscite,” will be published by Scribner, Armstrong & Co.—F. J. Huntington & Co. will publish next month “The Hymnal with Music,” by the Rev. Dr. Tucker, of Troy.

—Dr. W. D. Wilson, author of “Lectures on the Psychology of Thought and Action,” reviewed in the *Nation* of April 11, has pointed out to us that we misrepresented him in saying that he thinks instinct and clairvoyance to be due to a direct action of the spinal cord. On the contrary, he thinks them due to the possession of “senses” other than the familiar five. We much regret the error, though we think the opinion we attributed to Dr. Wilson is not more at variance with first principles than that which he really holds.

—To teach Englishmen the geography of foreign parts, it has been said that a war was necessary. The people of Leicester, in England, have, however, lately learned that the town has a namesake in Massachusetts, and one, too, with a century and a half of history; and the discovery has been made the occasion of an interchange of courtesies of the most peaceful and friendly character. The medium of communication, in this case, was a Boston gentleman, Mr. Abraham Firth, who had the singular fortune to have been born in the old Leicester and bred in the new. A visit to his native place interested him so much that he collected books, photographs, etc., illustrative of its history and antiquities, and presented them, on his return, to the public library at Leicester, Mass. But besides this, he made up a collection of documents of the same nature in regard to the latter town, and sent them as a gift to the Literary and Philosophical Society’s library in Leicester, England. This elicited a pleasant letter of acknowledgment, with the frank confession: “So imperfectly is the topography of America known in this country that, to most of us, the fact that a second Leicester existed in New England was a revelation.” The Society also forwarded several additional volumes, pamphlets, and photographs relating to their town, to be deposited in the public library, the directors of which have in turn responded with maps of Worcester County, Washburn’s “History of Leicester,” “Lectures on the Early History of Massachusetts,” and with “cordial good-will and hearty desires to see England and the United States of America joined, on the basis of mutual justice, in all good efforts for the pacification of the world and the good of mankind.”

—If Dean Alford were alive now, he would like to read the *Kansas Magazine*, whose English we borrow in describing a variety of the human species which is christened the Catfish Aristocrat. First, for his habitat: a Kansas river is an anomaly in nature, being too shallow for navigation, too dense for a constant beverage, and too fluid for culture, though, if the catfish could be permanently expelled, and proper attention given to irrigation in summer, these streams might be made the garden of the world. A snag or some other obstacle to their flow, having stuck fast, affords a lodgment for the detritus of the bluffs, and, if these accretions can be held for a short time, there is soon an anonymous growth of feculent herbage and festering, crawling weeds; then malarious bushes and jungles exhale from the black soil, in whose loathsome recesses the pools of pure rain are changed by some horrible alchemy into green ooze and bubbly slime, breeding reptiles and vermin which infect earth and air with their venom, while deadly vapors and sickly odors born of decay for ever brood in the perpetual gloom. This foul alluvion with its basis of quaking quicksand by-and-by becomes subject to local government, and, under the delusion that it is a component part of the earth, is surveyed, and soon thereafter a zigzag pen of rotten rails surrounds the filthy hovel of the Catfish Aristocrat, which rises from the swamp like a congenial exhalation. The Catfish Aristocrat is pre-eminently the saloon-builder. He builds no school-house, he builds no church; he constructs the log saloon with mud-daubed interstices. There with his companions he gathers round a rusty stove choked with soggy driftwood, drinks sodcorn from a tin cup, plays old sledge on the head of an empty keg, and at night reels home yelling to his squalid cabin. Arrived there he is met by a score of lean, hungry curs that pour in a canine cataract over the worm-fence, and, driving them back with imprecations, he gets to bed under a heap of vile gray blankets. In the morning he crawls into his muddy jeans and broken shoes, whence his great toes peer out like snake-heads of forbidding hue, and greets the day by drawing out the corn-cob stopper of a flat-back bottle, from which he takes raw a gurgling drink of infamous whiskey; after this draught he picks up a dull axe

and slabs off an armful of chips from a green cottonwood log and prepares his breakfast—hog meat and corn-dodger, washed down by a decoction of coffee burned to charcoal. Another pull at the bottle, a few grains of quinine if it is “ager-day” (ague), a chaw of Navy, and the repast is finished, and the Catfish Aristocrat is ready for the labors of the day. These, if it is war-time, consist in joining Price, or Anderson, or Quantrell, and bushwhacking, poisoning wells, murdering captive women and children, sacking defenceless towns, house-burning, horse-thieving, perpetrating atrocities that would make the blood of Sepoys recoil. In peace he votes the Democratic ticket. His parentage no man knows; it is supposed that he was born of the inner consciousness of his own squalor, but this must always remain a matter of conjecture. To the most minute observer his age is a question of the gravest doubt. He is perhaps a hundred years old; perhaps he is thirty. No one can tell the number of his years by inspecting the sandy sorrel of that hair, in color like a Rembrandt interior, which strays round his freckled scalp, those eyes—we must spare the reader the eyes—that lipless mouth, which never opens but to let whiskey and tobacco in and let oaths and saliva out. Lucky is it for Kansas that the Puritan came and made her a child of Plymouth Rock. Had he not, a few hundred mush-eating chawbacons, her only population, would still have been chasing their razor-backed hogs through her thickets of black-jack, and juggling for catfish in the chutes of the Missouri and the Kaw. Thus far the writer in the *Kansas Magazine*. His style is not the style which will be cultivated in Kansas when his Puritan idea, and some other ideas, shall have gone on to the fruition which he predicts for the ideas of Plymouth Rock; but as for the matter of his article, nothing is more certain than that he describes with substantial accuracy the Southern and Southwestern “poor white.” Such, really, were the worst and ignoblest of the poor wretches whom, ten years ago, we bred in plenty on our wild frontiers; and some such still we breed, though their foster-mother and best employer, slavery, they have lost. The Anglo-Saxon race in its degradation can sink to low levels; but perhaps nowhere and never has it been at once more degraded and more actively noxious than in this country and this century.

—A correspondent asks us to beg some publisher to undertake a continuation of Poole’s “Index of Periodical Literature,” a useful work which it would be exceedingly convenient for librarians, book-makers, and magazine writers to have brought down to a later date. To have it continued would be convenient for other writers as well as the classes just mentioned, for some of the really learned and sound and in every way good literature of the periodical publications gets into no book, and must be sought in the place of its first appearance. Moreover, to the exhaustive treatment of many subjects it is necessary or advisable to have read everything that everybody has written upon it, the good and the bad alike, and for these and other reasons we wish there were a prospect of profit sufficient to tempt one of our publishers to continue for money Mr. Poole’s labor of love—love which must, we fear, have been but lightly rewarded. We must, however, advise our correspondent that while we shall be glad if he can have his wishes in the matter gratified, we must deprecate his wrath against the authorities of the Smithsonian Institute. He is in a fine hearty state of indignation with those gentlemen because they are “busy preparing a new orbit for the planet Neptune” when they might go at “Poole’s” and get it finished up. But “Poole” and the periodical articles we can make shift to get on without; while the new orbit the planet must have, or it will be obliged to go on in the old one. We admit that it was so good a man as Mr. Garfield who the other day made some highly popular objections to the operations of the surveyors of the Fortieth Parallel, and thought their work not worth pursuing at much expense; but such things are nevertheless not to be said. Mr. Garfield or our correspondent might to-day have been a hind in a leather jerkin with his owner’s collar round his neck if a thousand years ago certain non-producers in cells and other idling places had not been trifling with astronomy, the magnet, explosive powders, and other rubbish instead of eating their honest blood-puddings, like sensible men, and herding pigs or owning them. Our correspondent must restrain wicked feelings towards the savans, and recollect that he can send a message to London and get a reply in ten minutes instead of twenty days, because some time since a few idle people, who should have been making indexes and so on, employed themselves in finding out how many different things would attract bits of paper, lint, and the like. In a sense, we “hitch our wagon to a star” fully as often as the transcendentalist could desire.

—The salvation of modern art by means of “real washtubs and a real pump” is not yet completed. Yet we notice the new “Life of MacLise” going over with a busy murmur of admiration the actual pulleys, actual ropes, tompions, and marlinespikes collected by that painter for his fresco of “Nelson.” Could not the biographer, after enumerating these and after quoting the artist’s Prussian correspondence over the cap worn by Blücher

at Waterloo, have proceeded more at large to tell what he thinks of those grand Maclises for their sentiment, action, and drama? Possibly the fore-ordained issue for this disease of minuteness is in American art, with its tendency to panoramas. Realism, at any rate the realism that holds modern painting to the wall, is not the trouble with our representative national pictures, the Trumbull historicals at Washington, about which a Montana correspondent has asked us some questions. Colonel Trumbull, a decidedly meritorious disciple of the Fusgli and Haydon period, was apt to utter history with the latitude of parable. That, however, was not the reason why his floods of paint, totally unrestrained by real washtubs, were a bad bargain for Congress. The Representatives, in fact, reasoning upon probabilities, could hardly have done better with the order. It was adjudged to a man with very genuine claims, both for artistic and patriotic worth, and Congress has never since had a repetition of that felicity. The disturbing element was nothing but old age. The four Trumbulls in the Rotunda of the Capitol were begun at the age of sixty and finished at sixty-eight. Their melancholy inferiority to his early, live work may be measured by referring to his pictures owned by Yale College, among which are the originals, having a long priority, of the large "Declaration of Independence" and "Surrender of Cornwallis." These first conceptions show high merit, and the miniature heads they contain are of delicate value as portraits. When the artist came to exaggerate them for the Rotunda, he failed abjectly. His faults, which can be most readily explained in writing, however, are faults of verity. His "Declaration" shows the faces of Congressmen who did not sit in Independence Hall till long after the date. His "Cornwallis" introduces the portrait of that officer, who was not personally at the scene of the surrender. This having been complained of, Trumbull was forced to give the figure another name. His "Washington" resigns his commission in the presence of ladies, who would be thought to have intruded for purposes of ornament were they not so prominent in deformity. "Let not foreigners, or men of after days," says Dunlap, "take these pictures, because of their situation, as a standard by which to measure the arts of design in our country at the time they were painted." The four blazons by Trumbull are not frescoes, but canvas pictures. They are each eighteen feet by twelve, and Congress paid \$8,000 dollars apiece for them. As an additional perquisite—we may remind the minute moralists who have grudged to Rothermel the exhibition of his "Gettysburg"—the Colonel took his pictures without reproach over the country as they were severally completed, getting thousands of dollars for the first so displayed, while the last did not pay expenses.

—It has been a much controverted point whether the ministry of Christ was one year, or two, or more. The Gospel of John appears to vouch distinctly for three Passovers, which would be at least two years and some months. On the other hand, the death of Christ is fixed for A.D. 29, the consulship of the two Gemini, by the concurrent tradition of the church, while Luke (iii. 1) gives the fifteenth year of Tiberius for the date of his baptism, and Tiberius came to the throne in 14. It has therefore been generally assumed that his ministry was one year only. An article in the January number of the *Quarterly Review* discusses this subject, and shows that Zumpt (and before him an English scholar, Dr. Mann) has removed this apparent inconsistency by pointing out that, although Tiberius did not become sole emperor until 14, he was associated with Augustus three years earlier, and it is probably from this first actual assumption by him of imperial rank that the Evangelist dates. This event was in the last part of the year 11; the year 26, therefore, would be the fifteenth year of Tiberius, and as the birth of Christ is well ascertained (by comparison with the dates of Herod's life) to have been four or possibly five years before the common era, we come to Luke's statement that he was then about thirty. This view is further confirmed by the expression (John ii. 20): "Forty and six years was this temple in building." It is shown from Josephus that the temple was commenced B.C. 20 or at latest 19; and, as it was not finished until A.D. 63, it is clear that this expression meant that it was forty-six years since its commencement. This would bring us to 26 or 27, or at latest 28, as the date for the conversation in the second chapter of John. Putting these facts together, we may conclude that the baptism of Jesus was in the last part of the year 26, and his first Passover (John ii.) in the spring of 27.

—In the last of the six discourses which Döllinger has been delivering in Munich on the divisions of Christendom and the way to reunion, he paid some attention to the Jesuits, whose achievements he sketched in a very forcible manner. The history of the last three centuries, he said, had shown that the Jesuits blighted whatever they touched, and that none of their works were prosperous. Their traces are marked with ruins, and so utterly barren has their husbandry been that the proverb, "No grass grows where the Turk sets foot," is fully applicable to them. Where now, asked Döllinger, are the Jesuits' missions to Japan, Pa-

raguay, and the savage tribes of North America? In 1625 they might have been called the rulers of Abyssinia—nine years later not a vestige of them was to be found there. And what is left of their labors in the Grecian islands, in Persia, the Crimea, in Egypt? Scarcely so much as the recollection of them survives. By endeavoring to establish the universal monarchy of Spain in Europe, they brought about the depopulation and bankruptcy of Spain itself and the loss of its possessions in other parts of the world. More than this: aided by the Inquisition they impressed their own spirit so completely upon Spain that they made it one grand monastery, where neither science nor the highest culture could thrive; with the result that to-day Spain produces nothing in literature, and, with the exception of Turkey, is the most retrograde country in Europe. Döllinger also charges them with having destroyed the old German Empire and introduced the system of state-absolutism. In Bohemia they annihilated the ancient Czech literature, broke up the old Bohemian nobility, expelled thirty thousand families, and sowed the seeds of discord between the Bohemian and German elements of the population. The influence of the Jesuits at Rome and the mortal hatred they inspired in England determined for more than a century the fate of the Catholics of that country, bringing upon them unspeakable misfortunes and oppression. Sigismund of Sweden owed them the loss of his crown, but their own expulsion followed it. In Russia, they pinned their destinies to the false Demetrius, and shared his overthrow. In Poland, their control of kings, nobles, and the higher clergy has brought that country to its present condition. After plunging Portugal into misery by inciting King Sebastian in the sixteenth century to his African crusade, they favored the Spanish domination, and, when that failed, their influence on the monarchy introduced the deplorable misgovernment of which we still see the effects. They prepared the way for the French Revolution by fostering the corruption of morals from king to peasant, and, taking the soul out of the Gallican Church, left it powerless against Voltairianism and an easy prey to the violence which soon overwhelmed it.

#### EASTLAKE'S "GOTHIC REVIVAL."

THE architecture called Gothic first appeared in England during the last few years of the twelfth century. The style had originated in France, not more than twenty-five years before, and in purely constructional necessities, but first appeared in England rather as a system of ornamental design than as a new way of building. This distinction soon disappeared, and after the year 1200 the French Gothic and the English Gothic grew and flourished and passed through rapid changes, side by side, with less influence over one another than might be looked for. Under the Angevine kings of England, French architecture would naturally be a controlling influence, one is ready to say. It is probably to the English monasteries and monastic architects that the characteristic and independent development of English architecture is mainly due, at least during the earliest years—the years that gave it character and independence. In France the art flourished for three hundred years, and passed away finally with the fifteenth century. In England it struggled on longer, the influence of the revived classic taste of Italy being much less strong in England than among the nobles of Louis XII. and Francis I., fresh from Italian campaigns. But in the reign of James I., of England, classical architecture is held, in common opinion, to have gained complete mastery throughout his kingdom, and Gothic art to have been definitively abandoned. Here, however, Mr. Eastlake has a word to say. It is the chief object of the first part of his book to show that the Gothic style was never wholly abandoned in England. He speaks of repairs and additions carried out with tolerable faithfulness in the style of the original buildings, of new buildings also, which, however misshapen their designs, are Gothic in intention, and especially of the never-ceasing antiquarian interest in the old buildings as historical monuments, which did much towards their preservation during times when they were not the fashion. The account of the struggles of Inigo Jones and Sir Christopher Wren with the Gothic churches over which they had authority, and of the mingled respect and contempt with which these and other able men looked on the old work, is very interesting, and only too short.

Our author's third chapter begins the history of "The Gothic Revival." Horace Walpole is considered the first, the unconscious, the childlike and stammering prophet of the new dispensation. Chapter IV., after too brief a mention of a most interesting matter—the Gothic work done at Hampton Court during the reign of George II.—goes on to discuss the followers of Walpole, a list of noblemen and architects who dabbled in mediæval antiqui-

\* "A History of the Gothic Revival: An attempt to show how the taste for Mediæval Architecture, which lingered in England during the last two centuries, has since been encouraged and developed. By Charles L. Eastlake, F.R.I.B.A., Architect; author of 'Hints on Household Taste.'" London: Longmans; New York: Scribner, Welford & Co. 1872.

ties and restorations and imitations, and, finally, Beckford, the author of "Vathek" (which "wild Oriental romance," Mr. Eastlake tells us, "has been long forgotten"), and his rather absurd palace of Fonthill. And here begins in earnest the discussion of that which has been the weakness as well as the strength of the "Gothic Revival," the immense multiplication of books of description and criticism, containing pictures both of effect and construction, and addressing both the enquiring student and the imitative modern architect. We meet with Dugdale, Gross, Bentham, and Willis; next we have Britton, and then, the first caterer to the architects who like their designs ready-made to their hand, the elder Pugin, with his "Specimens of Gothic Architecture." In this book, first published in 1820, "the graceful mouldings of York and Lincoln were accurately profiled on a large and intelligent scale. Instead of the vague and frequently inaccurate sketches of ancient tracery and groining which had previously been published, we find in this work plans and sections of stone vaultings and elevations of windows, drawn out with the utmost care, the radius and centre of every segmental curve ascertained, and the 'mitreing' of every junction clearly shown." And Mr. Eastlake adds, "An age of ignorance was succeeded by an age of plagiarism."

The weakness of the Gothic revival has been, of course, its imitative character. Direct copying was not to be avoided at first; without it nothing could be done—nothing learned; but the age of direct copying ought to have been very short. Unhappily, the possibility of reviving Gothic architecture was proposed as a patriotic, a religious, or an antiquarian and historical study to a generation which knew almost nothing of decorative art of any kind, and to which architecture was not a fine art at all. The flat insignificance of London in 1840, the frightful ugliness of the gentlemen's seats built for a century before that time, the desecrated and dishonored decay of the noblest churches in England, were paralleled by the almost total absence of beauty in the interior, in the household, in the objects of daily life. But for the porcelain works scattered about England, there would have been a nearly total abandonment of decorative design applied to industry; and the low ebb which decorative design had reached may be judged by any one who considers the objects turned out by these porcelain manufactories themselves. Mr. Chaffers' "Keramic Gallery," just completed, will suffice. Let the reader look up Chelsea, Lowestoft, Derby, Bow, and the rest, and study the photographs of articles carefully selected from among those manufactured at those famous works, almost the only homes of decorative art in the England of their day. To this generation, which knew not of art except as a costly and superb way of displaying wealth and liberality, the study of Gothic art was proposed: 1st, Because it was an *English* style, not imported from Italy, and referring every day to Roman, Greek, and cinquecento Italian models; 2d, Because it was a *Christian* style, and not based upon the study of heathen temples; 3d, Because it was associated with glorious and romantic times—with knighthood and chivalry. Each of these reasons for the revival was sufficiently answered by careful copying. Moreover, criticism from the antiquarian standpoint became easy to those who would "eram" a little upon mouldings, and originality of design became proportionally difficult to architects, who were told that their designs were not "correct"—that they had used thirteenth-century mouldings with fourteenth-century tracery, and the like. The "Tractarian" reformers, too, were supposed to approve especially the revival; and the Low-church and Dissenting enemies of the Tractarians felt it incumbent upon themselves to stigmatize new Gothic churches as sectarian or schismatic. All these evils might have been overcome had the architects and workmen been stronger and more accomplished. The problem for the revivalists was, of course, to find out what point in English Gothic work was the best to start from, to agree, one and all, to build only in the style so selected, to study modern materials and the way to use them in accordance with the style, and then to let the art develop itself gradually, as art has done in all the great times. But the difficulties in the way were many, and have proved themselves insuperable. Gothic architecture has not yet been revived in any complete sense. The works of a few men only show what might have been done—what may yet be done if their example is followed.

The chief defect in Mr. Eastlake's book we take to be the one he could hardly avoid—its absence of discriminating criticism. Mr. Eastlake is, we take it, a practising architect settled in London. It is almost impossible for him to speak with freedom of the works of his contemporaries and competitors. He does what he can, and points out what are generally admitted to be the peculiar merits of each of the better known architects; but he can hardly say so if, with us, he thinks that Butterfield, among the elders, and Nesfield and Norman Shaw, among the younger men, are on the right track; that William Burges is one of the ablest designers living, but too resolutely antiquarian, saving himself by his fine draughtsmanship and power of wielding sculpture and painting, even of the human figure, as accessories

of architectural design; that the vast majority of the "Goths," including men of as severe and refined taste as Street, of such boundless energy and power of getting through work as Scott, and of such varied ability as Waterhouse, are rather examples of the inferiority and artificiality of modern design than architects of the kind that the times and the circumstances call for.

It is not made very clear in the book before us how much distinction is to be made between the mere substitution of Gothic for so-called classic forms and ornaments, on the one hand, and any resolute carrying out of Gothic principles of design, with modern materials, to serve modern needs. This our author might have done without bearing too forcibly upon the difference between the work of different men. This task of general criticism of modern English work Mr. Eastlake may yet set himself. The book before us gives us reason to hope that he may succeed in the more arduous labor. It is certainly a vast improvement upon the rather unfortunate "Hints on Household Taste," which, for our sins, is everywhere to be seen, causing curiously ugly sideboards to be made for our best dining-rooms, and retarding, we think, the progress of interior decoration.

It should be added that the illustrations to the "Gothic Revival" are numerous, entirely in wood engraving, and on the whole spirited and expressive. A great many more might be added with advantage, for it is vexatious to know nothing about the look of a building which is described and discussed at length, and it is to be remembered that nobody has photographs of these modern buildings, and that the books in our architectural libraries are ignorant of contemporary work. If this book succeeds, we hope that a second edition will be yet richer in illustrations. Moreover, an index should be added.

#### SCIENCE AND NATURAL SCIENCE.\*

THE term science, when used absolutely, applies properly to the system of rules which govern the art of investigating truth. It is so fundamental and comprehensive that it can hardly be defined save by an identical sentence: science is the science of thinking or using the human reason. Moreover, on this fundamental stage it is hardly possible to distinguish science and art; the science of thinking and the art of investigating truth become coincident. Science is opposed to tradition as the source and guarantee of human knowledge. It is as wide in its proper application as the entire realm which in former times was subject to tradition; it is as wide as human knowledge, as catholic as humanity, and it comprehends all human interests. However, it is rarely understood in this sense in its popular use, and even in the use of men of learning "science" is often used as identical with *natural science*. Hence arises a mischievous confusion, which robs pure science of its due prerogatives, and produces in natural science an undeniable arrogance, and a disposition to disparage the historical and speculative sciences. Whether, when this ambiguity is recognized as an evil, and the attempt is made to do away with it, some other name may be given to what we have above defined as science; whether the name philosophy may be revived for it, or, as has been well suggested, we may come to call it "wisdom," is not now an important question. We are concerned with the effort to distinguish this system of rules from its subordinate applications. Therefore, in this paper, science means what is above defined; natural science means the application of these laws of human thought to the investigation of truth in the domain of physics.

We desire to consider an especial case in which this *qui pro quo* seems to us to have produced an error in the discussion and solution of a most important problem.

On the 22d of September, 1871, Professor Virchow, the justly celebrated physiologist of Berlin, delivered an address before the "Association of German Nature Students," on "The Part which the Natural Sciences have to Play in the Formation of the New National Life of Germany." He declares that the problem to be solved, in order to found a homogeneous nationality, is this: to give to the people a fund of common convictions, and to educate them to the use of a uniform method of thought. The task to be performed by any force which aims to fashion and organize a sound and healthy nationality is here stated with absolute correctness, and the importance of that task it would be impossible to exaggerate. All the more necessary is it to scrutinize closely all the discussion of this problem, and every solution proposed for it.

Professor Virchow's solution is that the natural sciences are the power to produce unity of conviction and uniformity of method of thought. Hence they ought to be placed by the state in control of the state schools, when the problem would be both theoretically and practically solved.

It is worth while to review the process by which this conclusion is

\* "Die Aufgabe der Naturwissenschaften in dem neuen nationalen Leben Deutschlands." Von Rudolf Virchow. New York: L. W. Schmidt.

reached. It is asserted, in the first place, that natural science has conferred two important benefits on mankind. In the first place, it has taught us the genetic theory of knowledge. By "knowing," we of to-day do not understand holding in memory the tradition in regard to a thing (things being regarded as single, simple, and not subject to change); by "knowing," we now understand being familiar with the number, order, and connection of phenomena (things being regarded as ever subject to change, modification, and development). In the second place, natural science has taught us the supreme importance of method.

Here, however, we meet at once with the ambiguity we have mentioned. It most assuredly is not natural science that conferred these two benefits upon the human race. They are two great canons of science. They were won on the field of philosophy at the close of the last century. Philosophy is indeed slow and clumsy. It travels over a wide circuit to gain a little advance, but every step which it gains is felt over the whole expanse of human interests. It was so in this case. When these canons of thought were established, science was born. It had only to go on and conquer all the fields of human knowledge, rescuing the old ones from tradition and dogmatism, and creating a host of new ones. In physics it has won grand and rapid triumphs, and the natural sciences have furnished us with the most precise and satisfactory illustrations of the application and value of these scientific principles, but it is both an historical and a scientific error to say that natural science conferred these principles on the race; an historical error because it puts a subsequent event in the place of an antecedent, and a scientific error because it puts a part for the whole.

Next it is argued, on the ground of these services of natural science, that it is the proper authority to guide education. It will give unity of conviction and uniformity of method of thought. The inference is good, as we shall see in the end, that the force to which these two principles belong has an indisputable claim to preside over all education. At present we follow the train of thought of the author. The error which we have detected will manifest itself still more clearly by the error and confusion which it will produce in the result. Professor Virchow, then, proposes that natural science shall descend into the arena in which the sects and the philosophies are fighting for the control of primary education, shall single out especially the Romish Church, which now holds legal possession of many of the state schools, and holds them fettered in tradition and dogmatism, and shall enter into a conflict similar in character and method with that which the other parties are carrying on. Then the state shall judge that, among the contestants, natural science is the one which ought to carry off the prize, and so, finally, it shall enter into control of the state schools, protected and guaranteed by legal sanctions. It would thus supplant the church, and occupy its present position.

Numerous considerations at once present themselves to throw doubt on this solution of the problem proposed. Has the force to which (as we are told) we owe the genetic theory of knowledge, and method, no wider or nobler policy in the solution of this problem than to borrow intolerance, violence, and exclusiveness, the worst principles of its worst adversary? Can it only add another element of discord and confusion to a strife already full of shame and mischief? Can a solution be true which would have no application to the schools of England or America? Would not the answer of the priests be valid when they say: "If unity of conviction and uniformity of thought are what you want, leave the children to us. We will guarantee these sooner and more surely than these gentlemen can do it"? No solution is correct which leaves room for such grave misgivings.

But if we turn back to the true source of the great scientific principles—that is, pure science—we may properly say of that that it is the true mistress of all study, investigation, and education. It, and it only, can give unity of conviction and uniformity of method of thought. It is attainable through different disciplines, as the taste of various persons may lead them to choose. The principles are permanent and universal. They may be reached through many channels, and, when won, they may be applied to all objects of human knowledge. They serve to dispel illusions, to tear away falsehoods, to expose errors, and therefore, so far as they are faithfully used, to lead to the truth. They thus produce unity of conviction. They also inculcate strict, methodical, and sharply-defined methods of thought, and thus preserve investigation from dissipating itself on subordinate and unessential issues. These principles, in their sum, make up science. It may be reached as well through philology, history, interpretation, criticism, political science, etc., as through the sciences of nature. Hence it is catholic enough to be enthroned above all education as its spirit, its life, and its aim. It will not limit and narrow education, but continually expand it, continually open new channels by which we may find our way to the truth, to unity of conviction, to uniformity of thought, to harmonious and organic national life. As the presiding spirit of primary education, it will fix the end to be aimed at, viz.,

training in the scientific use of the mental powers. Nothing deserves the name of education, whether it be technical or ecclesiastical instruction, which sets itself any other end than this.

No one who appreciates what this science is, and what its true prerogatives and authority are, will ever propose to bring it to its rights by a legislative enactment or an executive decree. It has the right to rule, and sooner or later it must rule, over all thought and education. In the meantime, we must suffer for the need of it in every interest we have. But its triumph can never be secured by pitting it against Jesuits in a fight on their own principles. It must extend its leaven through the whole lump by its intrinsic value and power.

#### ANCIENT CLASSICS FOR ENGLISH READERS.\*

THIS is an excellent series for four classes of readers: for women; for college-bred men who want some short and handy way of reviewing their old studies; for unlettered scientific men; and for self-educated men of active mind, curious to know what manner of men those old Greeks and Romans were. Pliny the Younger, too, is just the man for a popular series like this. He was a born reporter; if he had not been a rich man, he would have been that ancient specimen of the Bohemian, a *scurra*. Hardly any old writer gives us such welcome glimpses into Roman interiors, or flashes the cheerful bull's-eye of history so effectively along those obscure bits of life that bring the old world home to men's business and bosoms; little supper scenes and homely bills of fare; ghosts; haunted houses; cases of *harridari*; incidents in the theatre and the courts; gossip about literary people, cliques, and spites; the romantic couple that tied themselves together and jumped from their chamber-window into Lake Larius; villas, baths, gardens, fountains, and terraces; not to mention graver matters, such as the haling of Christians and the terrible convulsion of Vesuvius that overwhelmed Herculaneum and Pompeii, of which he is the only surviving witness. In himself considered, Pliny was a commonplace and insignificant man. It is an injustice to the Pliny family to call him a Pliny at all, although for centuries the "nephew of his uncle" has prospered with his uncle's trade-mark and the well-grounded name of the house. His mother, it is true, was a Pliny, the sister of the Naturalist, though strangely called by the authors of this little volume the "sister-in-law"; but the son was a Pliny only by adoption. The regular Plinies, if we may generalize from the description given of two of them, appear to have been a strong breed, portly and masculine. The slender, sickly, red-eyed boy—for he never was anything more than a red-eyed boy—overeducated, ambitious with an ambition that far outran his mediocre abilities, perpetually fidgeting about his mind, was evidently all father, all Cæcilius—at any rate no Pliny. Dr. Holmes says somewhere that he never knew an instance of infant piety that was not clearly a case of scrofulous diathesis. Pliny—poor little pagan—had no chance to bud out into one of Mark Twain's good little boys. But the malignant humor burst out, nevertheless, in another and most virulent form; he wrote a tragedy in Greek when he was fourteen years old. Perhaps it may seem a little uncharitable to rake up in the year 1872 what was done in the year 76. Many wiser men than Pliny have done such things when they were boys and managed to live it down. But when Pliny plumes himself on it after he was man-grown, we feel bound to testify that he was one of those precocious, scrofulous organizations that are soon ripe, soon rotten. This explains why he fades out so completely in the last part of his life.

Messrs. Church and Brodribb's translations are quite good, and their biographical sketches, combined with extracts from the letters, give on the whole a tolerably fair idea of Pliny, though with some natural exaggeration. In a popular work such little blemishes may be overlooked as "the hoarse Codrus" (p. 85) for "Cordus," or "Maculonius will lend you his house" (p. 83), or "he tells us that he wrote a Greek tragedy in his fourteenth year, and that he began to practise as an advocate at nineteen" (p. 3), for "his fifteenth year" and "at eighteen." The author's name is given in the outset "Caius Plinius Cæcilius Secundus" (p. 2), instead of "Gaius" or, at any rate, "Gaius." In matters of textual criticism and higher philology the translators are rather at sea, evidently belonging to the old-fashioned clerical school, not to the new or German school of English philology so ably represented by Munro and Ellis. A droll enough illustration of this may be found in their version of one of the famous letters to Tacitus, describing the great eruption of Vesuvius (p. 14):

"A letter was put into his hands from Rectina, the wife of Cæsius Bassus, a poet of some eminence, who had a villa on the shore of the Bay. This lady

\* "Ancient Classics for English Readers, edited by the Rev. W. Lucas Collins, M.A. — 'Pliny's Letters,' by the Rev. Alfred Church, M.A., Head-Master of the Royal Grammar School, Henley-on-Thames, and the Rev. W. J. Brodribb, M.A., late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge." Pp. 170. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1872.

was terrified at the danger in which she found herself—not without reason, if it be true, as we are told, that her husband actually perished in the eruption."

Now we may be quite as loath to break up this pretty Campanian bower—the poet and his bride, Cæsius Bassus and his Rectina—as ever Mr. Puff was to have all that part about Queen Elizabeth and her horse cut out: "Cut it out? And the description of her horse and side-saddle?" And yet it must be cut out, for there is not a word of truth in it. The manuscripts read (with some variants): *accipit codicillos rectine tasci imminenti periculo exterrite*: that is, *accipit codicillos Rectinae Tasci imminenti periculo exterrite*. There is something rotten in the word *Tasci*; and as it is known from the scholiast on Persius that Cæsius Bassus lost his life by the eruption, it occurred to the Venetian scholar, Hermolaus Barbarus, with the loose notions of his age about criticism—his book was published the year America was discovered—to shove the two very improbable words, "*Cæsi Bassi*," into the text, in place of the one word "*Tasci*." The whole argument set forth at length in Messrs. Church and Brodribb's Latin Pliny may be thus briefly condensed into the General Choke style:

Cæsius Bassus, a poet of some eminence, had a villa on the shore of the Bay.

Rectina, having also a villa on the shore of the Bay, naturally suggests herself as a fit person to be the wife of Cæsius Bassus.

Consequently, Rectina was the wife of Cæsius Bassus.

"Your Tower of London, sir," says General Choke, "is nat'rally your royal residence. Being located in the immediate neighborhood of your Parks, your Drives, your Triumphant Arches, your Opera and your Royal Almacks, it nat'rally suggests itself as the place for holding a luxurious and thoughtless court. And consequently," said the General—"consequently the court is held there." Nothing has worked more mischief in literary history than this determination to bring all contemporaries together by hook or by crook. It always reminds us of an atrocious print entitled "Washington Irving and his Literary Friends at Sunnyside," in which the author of the "History of New York" is represented in a chair, surrounded by a number of mezzotint gentlemen, each apparently unconscious of any other human being's presence, and aimlessly gazing into infinite void, like the pink-checked dummies in a barber's window. The names discreetly put by the artist under the figures enable us to say that some of the "literary friends" never were at Sunnyside and never saw Mr. Irving in his life.

To return to our subject—the Lady Rectina—we must positively forbid the banns, at least with Cæsius Bassus. Mommsen queries the name *Tasci*, probably because it is not found elsewhere. Keil thinks the *tasci* is a corruption of a part of the woman's name. We cannot quite agree with him. The usage of Pliny, as "*Verania Pisonis*," "*Piso's Verania*" (II. 20, 2), taken in connection with the obvious genitive, leads us to think it quite probable that the husband was mentioned. If it is necessary to find a *parti* for Rectina at all hazards, we suggest *Fuscus* as an easy change to fill up the gap, "*Fuscus's Rectina*" (i. e., *rectine fuscæ* for *rectine tasci*). As the name Rectina, by the way, is not quoted in any dictionary or onomasticon as occurring elsewhere, we may as well add that it is also found in a votive inscription discovered at Larinum ('Henzen,' 5770, a), OB REDITUM RECTINAE.

To conclude—if we have seemed a little hard with Pliny, that early specimen of "Every Man his own Boswell"; if we have thought this weak boy, on whom "Affluent Fortune emptied all her horn," has been rather overrated; if we decline to believe, as some people seem to, that the eruption of Vesuvius was got up primarily to show his weazen figure in the foreground, we will apologize to his admirers by quoting of him what Joanna Baillie says of Anna Gurney:

"Learned, and loving learning well,  
For college hall or cloistered cell  
A student meet, yet all the while  
As meet, with repartee or smile.  
Mid easy converse, polished, blithe, and boon,  
To join the circles of a gay saloon;  
From childhood reared in wealth and ease,  
The daily care himself to please—  
For selfish nature here below,  
A dangerous state, I trow."

*Stones of the Temple*; or, Lessons from the Rubric and Furniture of the Church. By Walter Field, M.A., F.S.A. (London: Rivingtons.)—What sort of lessons stones may teach is, we imagine, purely a matter of choice with the preacher—like many another text, they serve all purposes and suit all classes. Those in "*Stones of the Temple*" seem to be mainly accommodated to the cloistered horizon of ritualistic speculation. The author, fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, is capable of giving, and does give, a great deal of interesting information as to the antique uses and significance of church and ceremonial furniture, and to those who still retain a faith in the

value of ceremonial forms and observances, he conveys pabulum suited to their spiritual digestion, weak and medicated, in the form of a story woven in with moral reflections and ritualistic allusions. Mr. Ambrose Vicar, of — Parish, meets one of his unlettered sheep, Old Hutchinson, in the lych-gate of St. Catherine's church-yard, where, after discussing lych-stones, he takes him by slow marches to the grave-yard for the grave-stones, the porch, the pavement, the walls, the windows, loose stones, the font, the pulpit, the nave, the aisles, transepts, etc., ending with the tower and "the house not made with hands." The story succeeds, as do most of those which are made with a purpose; it may answer its didactic purpose with those who did not need any story to teach the lesson, but *qua* story it is, as might be supposed, a weak invention. Some passages, however, it would be impossible not to commend to the attention of English readers, and may be, by-and-by, of American. "Then let the bearers be men of good and sober character. How revolting to one's sense of decency is the spectacle, so common in London, of hired attendants, wearing funeral robes and hat-bands, drinking at gin-palaces whilst the hearse and mourning-coaches are drawn up outside." The demand for meaning in grave-stones, as well as fitness, is an application of the moral law as little to be hoped for as it is desirable.

*The Statesman's Year-Book: Statistical and Historical Annual of the States of the Civilized World. Hand-book for Politicians and Merchants for the year 1872.* By Frederick Martin. Ninth annual publication, revised after official returns. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1872.)—The character of this annual having undergone scarcely any essential change since last year's issue, we must refer our readers, for our full opinion concerning its value, to our review of its "eighth annual publication," given in No. 298 of the *Nation*. Briefly, however, we may state here that we still readily recommend it as a very useful compilation; and still find it defective in many respects. We are gratified, doubly gratified in fact, to find that many of our corrections have been turned to advantage in this new edition; but are sorry to discover that others, the adoption of which would have caused a more considerable expenditure of literary exertion, have been left unprofit by. Thus the reign of Ferdinand I. over Austria (not over Germany) has been made to begin in 1521, instead of 1556; the Grand-Duke Constantine has been struck out from among the Czars of Russia; the contradictions in the statements in regard to the population of Bucharest and Belgrade have been removed by omissions; Arad and Castelnuovo have been substituted for "Arrat" and "Canove," and Cattaro added in the list of the Austrian fortresses; one name has been made to replace "Kharkof," "Kharkoff," and "Charkow," and the list of Russian towns which showed "consistency in bad spelling" has been corrected—all this closely in accordance with our remarks. On the other hand, we find the lists of German emperors uncorrected, and the false statement concerning the extinction of Albrecht's line in Prussia in connection with the great Elector still stands; we still find notices of Liberia, Natal, and Costa Rica, but none of Hayti, San Domingo, Guatemala, Nicaragua, and San Salvador; and the yearly "chronicle" is by no means improved, whether we consider completeness or chronological accuracy.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Annual American Catalogue, third year, swd.	(F. Leypoldt) \$1 50
Abbott (J.), The August Stories, Vol. III.	(Dodd & Mead)
Baile (J.), Wonders of Electricity.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50
Baldwin (J. D.), Ancient America.	(Harper & Bros.)
Barnes (A.), Notes: Corinthians and Galatians.	(Harper & Bros.)
Dickens (C.), Martin Chuzzlewit.	(Harper & Bros.)
Broughton (Rhoda), Good-bye, Sweetheart!	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Cowdin (E. C.), France in 1870-71.	(New York)
Comfort (Prof. G. F.), First German Reader.	(Harper & Bros.)
Conant (T. J.), The Book of Proverbs.	(Sheldon & Co.)
Five Hundred Majority: a Tale, swd.	(G. P. Putnam & Sons) 0 75
Hamley (Col. E. B.), Our Poor Relations.	(J. E. Tilton & Co.)
Kinsey (O. P.), The Normal Debater.	(J. Holbrook & Co.)
Kennedy (J. P.), At Home and Abroad.	(G. P. Putnam & Sons) 2 00
Larkin (M.), The Rival Collection of Prose and Poetry (J. W. Schenckhorn & Co.)	
Life and Times of Henry Lord Brougham, Vol. III.	(Harper & Bros.)
Littell's Living Age, Vol. XXIV., Jan.—March, 1872.	(Littell & Gay)
Manning (Rev. H. E.), Sermons on Ecclesiastical Subjects.	(Ath. Pub. Society) 2 00
Maine Year-Book for 1872.	(Hoyt, Fogg & Breed) 1 00
Macdonald (G.), Within and Without: a Poem.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50
Mulock (D. M.), The Woman's Kingdom.	(Harper & Bros.) 1 50
Mitchell (Dr. S. W.), Injuries of Nerves.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Nystrom (J. W.), Pocket-Book of Mechanics and Engineering, 11th ed.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Nichols (Prof. W. R.), Eliot and Storer's Manual of Chemistry, abridged.	(Iverson, Blakeman & Co.) 1 50
Nott (Rev. E.), The Resurrection of Christ.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50
Partridge (J. A.), From Feudal to Federal.	(Trübner & Co.)
Southworth (Mrs. E. D. E. N.), A Noble Lord.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 75
Sizer (N.), What to Do, and Why.	(Mason, Barker & Pratt)
Taylor (B.), Beauty and the Beast; and Tales of Home.	(G. P. Putnam & Sons) 1 50
Townsend (Rev. L. T.), God-Man.	(Lee & Shepard)
Thomas (Annie), Maud Mohan: a Tale, swd.	(Harper & Bros.) 0 25
Tyerman (Rev. L.), Life and Times of John Wesley, Vol. II.	(Harper & Bros.)
The Workshop, No. 3, swd.	(E. Steiger) 0 40

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